



# *A History of the World*











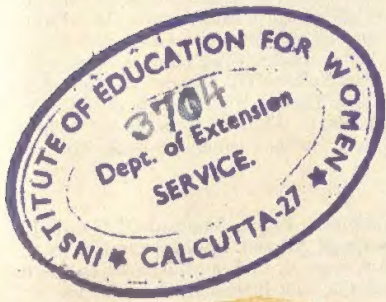


# A *History of the World*

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Page 1, American Museum of Natural History; Page 2, University Museum, Philadelphia; Page 4, Standard Oil Co. (N.J.); Pages 25, 59, 227, 376, Metropolitan Museum of Art; Page 24, Cleveland Museum of Art and Standard Oil Co. (N.J.); Page 27, British Museum; Page 76, United Press and Metropolitan Museum of Art; Page 79, Boston Museum of Fine Arts; Page 113, Black Star; Pages 131, 225, 305, 327, New York Public Library; Pages 152, 449, Bettmann Archive; Page 260, Culver Service; Pages 389, 508, Underwood & Underwood

### *Artists for drawings within units:*

Jon Nielsen, Units One, Eight; E. Joseph Dreany, Units Two, Eleven; Maurice Rawson, Units Three, Nine; Raymond Vartanian, Units Four, Ten; Fritz Kredel, Unit Five; Lee Ames, Unit Six; Kenneth James, Unit Seven; Bruno Frost, Unit Twelve and illustrations for color section

*For the lettering on unit titles:* The Greeks, The Romans, The World During the Middle Ages, Arnold Bank.

*For the maps:* Graphic Presentation Services

*For the frontis photo:* Lew Merrim

MAGENIS-APPEL: A HISTORY OF THE WORLD

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E. P. 6



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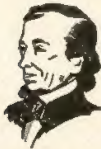
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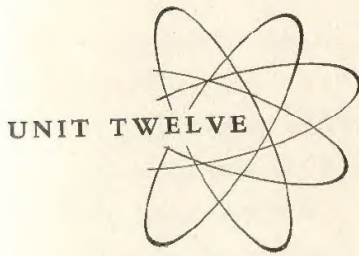
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## *To The Readers of This Book*

*"All the world's a stage."* So wrote William Shakespeare, the world's greatest dramatist. Shakespeare went on to say that all of us are actors on this stage. We are, indeed, actors in the great drama called *History*, which is written by the deeds of mankind.

Suppose you were an actor in an infinitely lesser drama, a play written by one man or woman. Let us suppose also that you appeared on the stage for the first time in the middle of the second or third act. In that case you would be well aware of the fact that to do a good job of acting, you would need to know what other performers who had appeared on the stage in earlier scenes had said and done. In other words, you would need to know the story up to the time of your entrance.

The same is true of this most important of all dramas—the one played by mankind. You were born in the midst of the "play." Much went on before you stepped into the present scene. In order, therefore, to play your part intelligently and well, you must know what men have been doing up to your time.



Just as the actor does not play his part alone, but with other actors, so you are taking part in a scene with the rest of mankind. For that reason, you must know not only what has gone on in the past, but what is taking place on the stage of the world as you play your part.

This, then, is the reason for studying *History*, the drama in which you are a member of the cast.

This book, *A History of the World*, is a script of that drama. No one book could possibly include the whole story of mankind. Many interesting details are necessarily left out. The main plot is here, however, and you will no doubt want to supplement it from books listed at the ends of the units.

The book is divided into twelve units, which, in turn, are divided into *chapters*. These are the *acts* and *scenes* of mankind's mighty drama. The first unit introduces you to *early man*, that far-off ancestor who lived for hundreds of thousands of years before our modern day. He did not do spectacular things, but in his slow, plodding progress he laid out the plot of the drama: *mankind's struggle toward a clearer spiritual understanding, a higher culture, and a more democratic way of life*. It is the most thrilling story that could be enacted.

Men in succeeding acts (units) have played their parts, too. They have not always acted wisely, but they have always added interesting and important scenes to the drama. Egyptians, Babylonians, Greeks, Romans, men of the Middle Ages, of the Renaissance, and of the more modern world have stepped upon the stage and played their parts. They have been of different races and nationalities. Occasionally, a people or nation has appeared that has

not advanced the plot of spiritual, cultural, and democratic progress. On the whole, however, succeeding acts have carried the plot on from one success to another.

The complete drama of mankind has many small plots within the great plot, and it is a most complicated story. But in this book you will stick to the main theme quite closely. The aim of this book is to guide you in understanding that theme.

You do not start out entirely ignorant of history. You have seen movies and television performances; you have heard radio skits; and you have read books—all dealing with the past; you have traveled to places of historic interest perhaps, and all of you live where history has been made and is being made, in some cases important history. In other words, history is nothing new or strange; you come in contact with it every day. The only new thing will be that in reading this book you will be getting, not little snatches of the drama, but the whole sweep of it in all its majesty from the time mankind made his first entrance upon the scene until the present. It is a wondrous and thrilling drama.





*Let us begin . . .*



LIFE IN THE PREHISTORIC WORLD

**Out** of a mysterious world of unrecorded time and strange  
**forms** of life came early man,

**striving** from the very beginning of his existence to create  
**things** of usefulness and to add beauty to his surroundings.



PAINTING ON THE WALL OF A CAVE HOME







AN EGYPTIAN WALL PAINTING, 1200 B. C.

Through man's artistic endeavor, we follow his progress as he learned to work with nature,

#### CRETAN CIVILIZATION



to venture beyond home shores, and to develop his creative abilities.



PERSIAN SCULPTURE, 500 B. C.



A HINDU TEMPLE OF INDIA

Early in man's history he began his search for a Power higher than himself.  
He built temples to the gods, who, he believed,

controlled and directed his life  
as he toiled to make a living and  
to survive in a harsh environ-  
ment.



RIVER-BOAT HOMES IN CHINA





THE ACROPOLIS OF ATHENS

The Golden Age of Greece, when man attained new heights of culture, is reflected even in the ruins of that ancient land. And to walk along the Appian Way is to relive the story of Rome's power and civilization.

THE APPIAN WAY

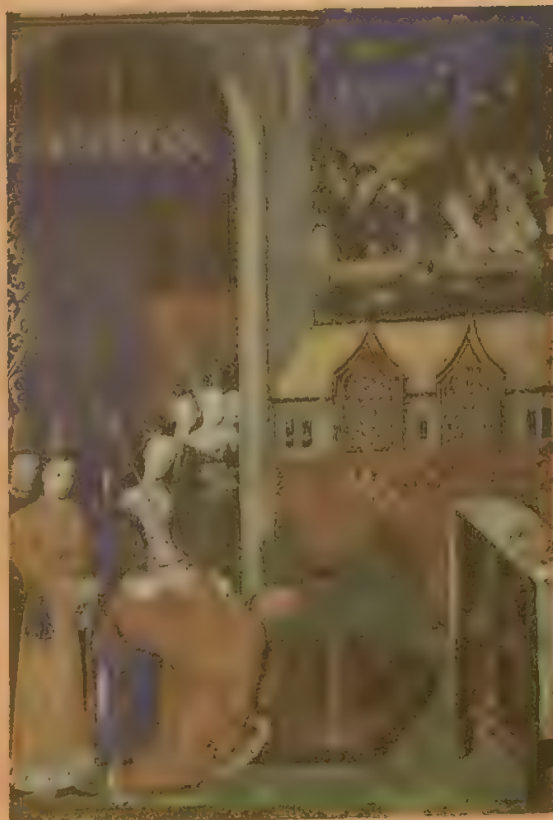


## THE NORSEMEN



PAGE FROM A MEDIEVAL MANUSCRIPT

Always curious, venturesome men gradually pushed their sturdy ships far across strange seas. In a quite different area of life and learning, skillful and patient scholars copied and so preserved for the world the priceless manuscripts of the ancients.





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A JAPANESE FESTIVAL

While man earned his bread, worshipped his gods, and fought his enemies, he also learned to amuse himself with music, dancing, and fun-making.

Everywhere, in the New World as well as the old, centers of civilization were developing the same skills and similar arts.

MAYAN AND MEXICAN ARTIFACTS



By the time man reached that period in his history known as the Middle Ages, powerful nobles had built strong castles to protect themselves and the people who worked on their lands.

Great artists recorded on canvas the lives of the people as they saw them working and playing, and in doing so added to the treasures of the world.



A FOURTEENTH-CENTURY FRENCH CASTLE

*Pieter Brueghel, Peasant Dance, Kunsthistorisches Museum, Vienna*







*"The Adoration of the Magi," Botticelli, National Gallery of Art, Washington, D.C. (Mellon Collection)*

The period of man's highest artistic achievement, known as the Renaissance, produced masterpieces in all forms of art. A painting by Botticelli, the Palace of Louis XIV, at Versailles, and thousands of other works of man's creation reflect the talent he had developed through the ages.

#### THE VERSAILLES PALACE



When nations came into being, each had unique contributions to make to the world. The people of Spain sang and danced on colorful holidays with the same zest that had prompted their daring ancestors to explore new lands and find untold riches therein.



MAJORCA, SPAIN



SPANISH CONQUISTADORS

With the discovery and settlement of the New World came the greatest experiment in self-government so far attempted, which transformed the thirteen British colonies in America into an independent United States of America.



THE GOVERNOR'S PALACE, WILLIAMSBURG RESTORATION

"THE CONGRESS VOTING INDEPENDENCE, 1776"







In other parts of the New World, military heroes led their people to independence from foreign rulers.

Today, the descendants of early civilizations in those Latin American countries combine the old and the new in their way of life.

NATIONAL HOLIDAY, BOLIVIA

MARKET PLACE, PERU





A HOSPITAL LABORATORY

So mankind continues to question, study, experiment, build, and invent, until, in many areas of the world, huge factories and industrial plants, sweeping fields of grain, and vast systems of transportation supply the needs of billions of people around the globe.

OPEN-HEARTH SHOP OF STEEL WORKS





OHIO FARM LAND

SHIPPING ON THE GREAT LAKES







UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, LOS ANGELES

The story of mankind, the history of all people around the world, points the way to future progress. Man profits from history, whether he studies the past on a campus in America, or mingles with people in distant lands.

HARBOR OF BERGEN, NORWAY



MODERN INDIA



A STUDENT IN THE PHILIPPINES

RIVER TRAFFIC, THAILAND

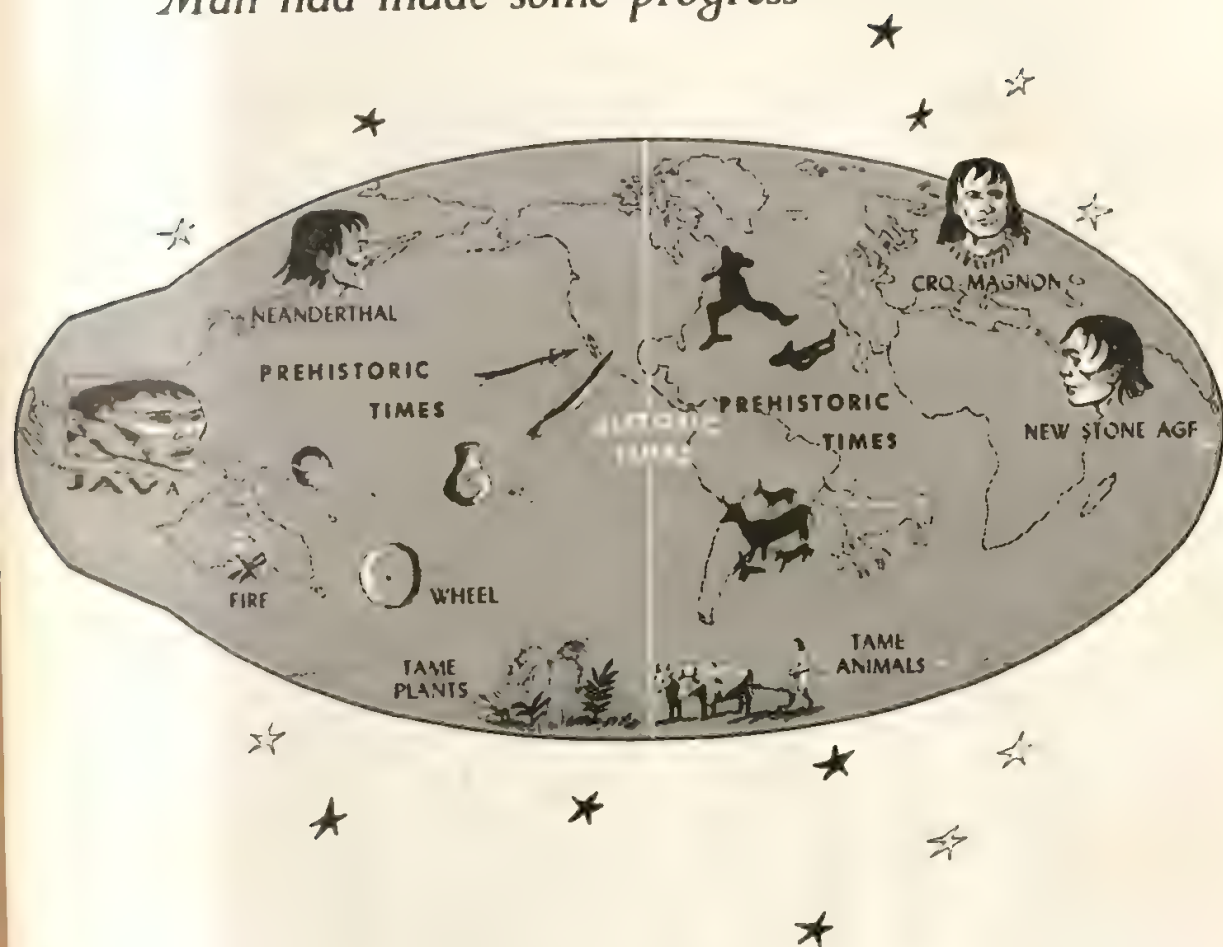




The highest and noblest ideal of man is still ahead, a world in which all people shall live together in freedom and peace.



*Man had made some progress*



*before civilization began*





Have you ever noticed the second hand as it swings around the face of your watch? It takes only a minute out of a day to make th at swing. So the span of time on the earth since the first men learned to read and write is only a minute in the whole "day" of human life, and the "day" of human life is less than a minute in the long, long life of the planet on which we live, the earth. Such sweeps of time are so vast that they do not mean much to us. We can only try to understand that the earth was already very, very old when men appeared upon its surface. And for tens of thousands of years mankind struggled up a long, hard road before he acquired even the skills of reading and writing, two of his greatest achievements. The six thousand years which have passed since man learned to read and write is a very short time in the long period of human progress.

This book is a history of mankind. However, history could not begin until man learned to keep records. He had been on the earth thousands of years and had taught himself many useful skills before he invented writing. In this unit you will learn some of the things that happened in that long period between the formation of the earth and the time when man first began to write.

If you want to become a successful musician, doctor, or carpenter, you must acquire certain skills and learn the terms which are used in your work. The same is true in the study of history. This first chapter will introduce you to some of the tools of history, the facts and things with which historians study man and his world.

You are starting out on a great adventure, the exploration of this planet and the people who have inhabited it.

**The picture representing *Beginning the Story of Our World* is an ideograph such as might have been used by prehistoric peoples. This form of communication later developed into writing as we know it.**





# I *History Is Your Personal Experience*

**Y**our ancestors of long ago solved some of their biggest problems by inventing the wheel, domesticating plants and animals, and learning to use fire. They put together crude clothing and built make-shift houses, too. But they did not stop at meeting their immediate needs. They were not satisfied with a mere existence. Fortunately, many people in every generation of the past explored interests that would enlarge and beautify living. As a result, over the centuries great music was written; beautiful pictures were painted; magnificent works of architecture and sculpture were created; institutions of learning were established; remarkable forms of entertainment and recreation were invented; a variety of clothing fashions were designed; more convenient and comfortable homes were planned. So man's story is *your* story, first, because of your *heritage*.

## **YOUR HERITAGE FROM THE PAST**

Man has been living on this earth for at least one million years. And many people have lived and labored throughout those centuries. Some of them had new ideas, others made important inventions, and still others directed the course of human progress. They achieved such remarkable things that their names were recorded and

honored and are still remembered. But most of the people of the past must remain unknown and unsung. They played their part by co-operating to carry out the plans of others. How crude, harsh, and difficult life would be if those generations of people had not worked together to make real the ideas and dreams of the few.

You are very rich, for the achievements of the ages are yours to profit from and enjoy. It is a great heritage that can provide you with knowledge, guidance, and enjoyment. Nor is the past entirely dead. Much of it lives, for history is a continuing story. Your generation is only writing a new chapter in the thrilling record of man's progress.

As you hold this book in your hands, you are sharing the material and technical heritages of the ages. Paper had its crude beginnings on the banks of the Nile in Egypt. The alphabet of which these words are composed took form in the hands of the Phoenicians who lived 3,500 years ago and was improved by the Greeks. The numbers on these pages were invented in ancient India. The idea of having movable type so that many different books could be printed in large quantities was first thought of in China over nine hundred years ago. The photographs in this book are based upon a technique that had its beginnings

more than a century ago. The book was printed by machinery made of iron and steel. The first iron dates back about 3,000 years, to a people living in Asia. In many other areas of your everyday life, the past lives on.

History is your story not alone because of the wonderful heritage you have in *things* and *skills*. From thoughtful people of the past have also come many *ideals*. Thinkers down through the centuries have had noble plans for the world. Some of these have not yet been attained. But we believe that many of those ideals are worth the struggle which mankind continues to make for them.

For example, the democracy which we in America enjoy is one of the ideals which began in the past and which we continue to improve. Twenty-five hundred years ago the Greeks of Athens had some idea of a democratic form of government, although they did not call it that. Theirs was a limited democracy, however, and affected only a few people. The Romans applied de-

mocracy to larger areas by means of a government in which the people elected representatives to make their laws. Many years later, the English nation led the way in guaranteeing the liberties of the individual. Trial by jury, rule by a parliament instead of by one man, the right of the peoples' representatives alone to levy taxes, all of these have come down to us from England of long ago as safeguards of our own democracy.

Democracy is only one of the many ideals which have come to you from across the years. Your standards of right and wrong have been developed largely from the ideals of the Hebrews and the Christians. The Ten Commandments of the Hebrew Old Testament have been written into the laws under which you live. And the ancient Christian teaching to "Love thy neighbor as thyself" expresses an ideal that is very much alive in your world.

Finally, history is your story because it is an account of *human experiences*. You, as a human being, have problems, ambitions,

*Material things, skill, imagination, ideas, and group co-operation, all part of our cultural inheritance from prehistoric man, are brought together in the school orchestra, as in many other activities.*

Black Star







*Individuals are important because they are wise leaders or because they are intelligent, co-operative followers.*

hopes, disappointments, successes, and failures. Boys and girls, men and women, have always had such experiences. Your whole heritage, whether tools to make life easier or ideals to make life more worth while, has come from human beings like yourself. Because you have so many more advantages than your distant ancestors had, and because you enjoy what they worked so hard to achieve, you can hope to improve what they passed on to you.

1. In what respects does your living depend upon people who lived in the distant past?
2. Point out four ways in which history continues to live in the present.
3. Why may we say "History is your story"?

## THE ELEMENTS OF A LIVING PAST ARE YOURS

**People** History is about *people*. They are the *first element* in the living past. You are a person, and you are different from anyone who has ever lived. Throughout the thousands of years of human life on this earth, every person has been different in some respects from everyone else. Because you are different, you make a dif-

ference. Never underestimate the importance of that fact. Physically, mentally, and spiritually, people have powers such as no other creatures have. When we use our powers, we stand out as *individuals*.

**Time** A *second element* in the living past is *time*. We speak of "time passing by." Actually, time does not pass by. It *exists*. People and events pass by. So we measure the "passing" of time by important events that affect us. High-school students often remember a personal experience as happening in a certain year of their school life, or as having taken place before or after they entered high school.

All time can be divided into *prehistoric* (time before written records were kept) and *historic* (time since the invention of writing). The historic period in the development of mankind is only a moment in comparison to the total length of time man has been on the earth. Since man learned to write, his progress has been great, but the foundation for that progress was laid by the slow but important steps which he took in the long, prehistoric period.

Early peoples frequently used unusual events in the world of nature by which to

*Time is measured by events, whether they concern individuals, small groups of people, or entire nations.*





identify time. Floods, fires, blizzards, droughts, and eclipses were key events. Nature also provided the unit for *measuring* how much time had “passed.” The Egyptians noticed how regularly the sun seemed to rise and set, so they numbered those periods of light and darkness which we know are produced by the revolution of the earth on its axis. The American Indians observed the appearance of a full moon every twenty-eight days. That larger unit of time enabled them to recall the past in terms of “moons.” In somewhat different form, we continue to use nature’s divisions of time, which we call days, months, and years.

In ancient Rome the time of all events was measured *from the founding of the city of Rome*. The Latin expression was *ab urbe condita* (ăb ur’be con’dī ta) (A.U.C.). The Hebrews dated their events by the name and year of the ruling king. The Mohammedans date events either before or after the founding of their religion. However, today most of the world follows the system long used by the Western World to record events. That system divides time at the birth of Christ. Years since the birth of Christ are designated by the Latin phrase, *anno Domini* (an’nō dōm’ī nī), meaning “in the year of our Lord.” It is abbreviated “A.D.” Events before the birth of Christ are recalled by the number of years they occurred “B.C.” For example, Julius Caesar died in 44 B.C. The United Nations was founded in 1945 A.D.

A system of timekeeping is called *chronology*. Such a widely accepted system as the Christian chronology, which places events as happening B.C. or A.D., makes it easy for historians to organize the records of the past.

Because man’s story has been long and eventful, you will find the use of dates

helpful in understanding human progress. Many of the dates in this book are not meant to be memorized. Their purpose is to put events in their proper “time relationship” so that you can place the events of history. Time charts and time lines are placed at convenient points to help you get a clearer picture of the time relationship of important events.



*People, time, place, along with ideas and ideals, are important elements of our American culture.*

**Place** A *third element* of the living past is *place*. People live and do things in certain places which they could not or would not do if they lived somewhere else. Although the entire earth has been the stage of man’s activities, it is really not *one* stage but *many* stages. Because of geographic conditions people have had to live differently and carry on different activities in the various parts of the world. The character of the earth’s surface, its *topography*, including mountains, valleys, hills, and plains, has had much to do with man’s occupations.

Man soon learned that the rich, level land of river valleys was more favorable for farming than the steep, thin-soiled mountainsides. However, the steep slopes could be grazed and the rock near the

surface could be quarried and minerals extracted from it. Traveling was easier and more rapid in the plains, where roads are straighter. Following nature, the first large inland communities were organized in river valleys where the residents could travel by boat readily.

Nearness to the ocean has made a difference to peoples, too. Some nations have good harbors through which to trade with distant lands. These nations usually have big navies. The landlocked nations, on the other hand, have often sought by various means to acquire outlets to the oceans.

*Climate*, in all of its aspects, is another factor in shaping the history of a place. In the milder parts of the world, where the average temperature is high, the growing season is long; two or three crops can be raised in one year, and these crops are different from those raised in the cooler areas. The amount of rainfall makes a difference, too. Where rainfall is light, different methods of farming, and sometimes irrigation, must be adopted.

The *natural resources* are another important geographical factor in shaping the life of the communities of the world, and thus their history. The world's mineral, animal, and plant resources are so unevenly distributed that no nation can be self-sufficient. Each people has some advantages and some disadvantages. For example, the United States, which possesses rich sources of coal, oil, and iron, has no tin. Italy did not become a great industrial country because it lacked such basic minerals as coal and iron.

The rivers of the world have affected areas differently. Some rivers are navigable and thus became highways of travel and trade. Others, rough and shallow, can be used only for water power and for gen-

erating electricity. Those rivers, such as the Nile of Egypt and the Colorado of the United States, which flow through desert areas, have made barren lands productive.

**The World Community** In the early years of man's life on earth, no one person concerned himself about more than a small portion of the earth. Travel was slow and difficult and there was little need to travel anyway. As travel facilities were improved and people's needs and desires increased, they moved about more and more. Group migrations occurred. As a result, ideas and products were widely shared. The world became more and more interdependent. Swift modern means of transportation and communication have brought all parts of the world into close contact. Whereas early man knew only a small local community, you are living in a world community. It is quite possible that some of you will visit every continent in the course of your lifetime. Even if you do not, your life may be affected by events in the most remote and primitive corners of the earth. From Argentina to Alaska, from Mexico to Manchuria, it is *your* world.

To co-operate well people must understand each other. In this book you will become acquainted with many peoples by accompanying them on their long journey from earliest times. You will locate their homes on your maps. You will try to understand their problems and catch sight of their ideals. These peoples are important because they helped to lay the foundation of your culture and to build your civilization.

1. What three important elements make up history?
2. How do human beings differ from other creatures?

3. How does man measure time? Why are dates used in history?
4. Why do we say that our world is "interdependent"?

## MANY THINGS MAKE UP YOUR CULTURE

There are certain general needs that human beings have always had. Those needs fit together into a pattern that we call "culture."

You are very much aware of your material needs: food, clothing, shelter, transportation. But long ago man became conscious of other things that were necessary to enrich his living. He felt the need of love and of being accepted in a group, for example.

You are acquainted with all sorts of organized and unorganized *groups*. They have various aims but the general purpose is to have people do together what they could not do separately. Membership in an organization increases the influence and power of the individual and contributes to his culture.

As long as people mingle, *self-expression* is necessary. Individuals make themselves felt by speaking, writing, and by artistic endeavour. Literature, dramatics, music and art are means of expression and are very important to culture.

*Education* is a process by which people gain knowledge and improve their living. Certain simple but important knowledges of reading, writing, and arithmetic are needed to manage your daily living. Education adds to our enjoyment of life, too.

Being human, men's minds and bodies have always grown tired. Most of the forms of *recreation* that you know are of recent origin. For centuries nothing was known of movies, radio, television, foot-

ball, basketball, baseball, and tennis. But the generations of young people who lived before you had equally refreshing and exciting activities.

*Religion* has always been essential to the complete life and a powerful influence on man's culture. For thousands of years man has been seeking to know and to communicate with the Maker of the universe. Most ancient peoples believed in many gods; each of them governed one aspect of nature. For instance, there was a god of the sun, a god of the moon, a god of the harvest, and many others. The Hebrews, however, believed that there is one God of the whole universe, and that belief has become a part of our own culture.

Food, clothing, shelter, transportation, group membership, self-expression, education, recreation, and religion, these have been man's basic interests throughout the ages. These are your interests, too. These are the things to which man devotes his time and energy. They are his *culture*.

## FROM SAVAGERY, TO BARBARISM, TO CIVILIZATION

Progress has come where man has improved and refined each element of his culture. The most primitive culture was savagery. Savages lived in wandering tribes, hunting and fishing for a living. After savage man had made certain advances, the most important of which was the invention of pottery, he reached a stage that is sometimes referred to as *barbarism* (bār'bā rīz'm). Barbarians lived in crude huts. While they still hunted and fished for much of their food, they also kept flocks which supplied them with meat, milk, and clothing. In remote parts of the world savages and barbarians can still be found.





Standard Oil Co. (N. J.)

*Since his first appearance upon the earth, man has been interested in studying the physical world about him.*

You live on the higher plane of culture known as *civilization*. Culture reached the "civilized" level as certain revolutionary discoveries or inventions were made in each area of culture. For example, in the area of self-expression man was not civilized until he had invented a sound language and had learned to write. Most civilized men live more settled lives than barbarians. They usually have permanent homes. Among primitive people the family and tribe were the principal groups. Membership was determined by blood relationship. But the civilized community consists of the settlers of a given area, regardless of blood relationship. Frequently, civilized groups develop because of financial, religious, or social interests that they have in common.

Civilized man has continued to seek better ways of doing things. His achievements are too numerous to mention in one book, but as you continue your study, you will be amazed at the wonderful changes man has wrought in every aspect of his living across the centuries. It took many, many years to produce your civilization.

It is exciting to conceive of the day when man's progress may carry him to Mars or some other planet. It is fascinating to imagine the kind of life the inhabitants of another planet would be living. However, the civilization you know is so wonderful and mysterious that it is equally fascinating. No person can ever know or imagine all of the miracles man has performed as he has worked with the materials he found on this earth. Although the mountains and the oceans have at times been barriers to human progress, they have also proved to be store-houses of treasures. Animals which man found wild and dangerous, he tamed and made useful. Plants which seemed to be useless were only awaiting the experiments of man to reveal their valuable secrets. Windwheels and airships do man's bidding. Great areas of barren desert sands have been made productive. What was the earth like and how did our ancestors in the far distant past live on it as they started out on life's great adventure?

1. What are the principal elements of "culture"?
2. What is meant by savagery? barbarism? civilization?
3. What are some of the aids to cultural progress in your community?

#### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Does the fact that you have inherited much from the past put any obligations on you to your family? To your school? To your local community? To people of other lands? To future generations?
2. In what sense are idealists the real leaders of the world?
3. What improvements in civilization do you think your generation should be trying to

make? Think about your proposals carefully and present illustrations to back up your points.

4. You have read that most civilized men have permanent homes. Why is the kind of home a person has important? Do people have to be wealthy to have good homes? What, in your opinion, makes a good home?

5. "An educated person should be able to live a happier and richer life than an uneducated person, even if the latter makes more money." Do you agree with this statement? If so, mention several ways in which education should make for real happiness.

6. Someone has said that democracy is a *way of life* rather than a system of government. What does that statement mean?

7. How does your own community profit by or make use of its natural resources and its geographic location?

8. Why does a citizen in a democracy have more responsibility than a person living under a dictatorship or an absolute monarchy?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• *ab urbe condita* • *Anno Domini* • axis • B.C. • barbarism • barrier • basic • chronology • civilization • culture • environment • heritage • time relationship •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Consult an encyclopedia to find out how different kinds of calendars have been developed. Report to the class, with pictures you find or with blackboard drawings.

2. Ask the librarian of your school or public library to direct you to old maps in books in the library. Compare them with modern maps to see how geographers pictured the different portions of the earth then and today. Point out the differences to the class.

## III. Group Assignments

1. Divide the class into four or more teams, each team to make a list of the needs that are common to all human beings wherever they live. Compare your lists in class and discuss the differences. Decide on a basic list that all groups agree to.

2. Appoint one or more class representatives to interview a friend who was born in another country. Find out what he believes are the chief contributions his native country or his race has made to mankind. Report the interview to the class.

## IV. History Related to Civics

1. List five characteristics you think are desirable for a young person to possess if he or she wishes to be welcomed into a group.

2. Make a list of ways in which you can contribute to making your class interesting and enjoyable not only to yourself, but to your classmates.

3. Make a list of the different items of food you eat in an average day and the country from which each may have come. On a wall map of the world pin a tag showing the country from which each item came. For example, coffee from Brazil, sugar from Puerto Rico, etc.

4. Each member of the class may select a country or area of the earth for study. Bring to class the results of your study of the climate and its effects upon the vegetable and plant life. Describe the occupations, clothing, food, and homes of the people. Some countries and areas from which you may want to select are: Great Britain, Sahara Desert, New Zealand, Iceland, Amazon River Valley, Tibet, Mississippi River Valley, Portugal, Malay States, South Africa, Belgian Congo, and Egypt. There are many others in which you may have some interest.



2

## Man Travels the Long Road to Civilization

**T**he world was old when the first living thing appeared upon it. By that time it had endured millions and millions of years of great violence. Wind, drenching rains, fierce volcanic action, and glaciers had molded the earth.

### OUR WORLD IS VERY OLD

It was probably a billion years ago that the first living things came into being. These forms of life were very simple, but as time passed, more complicated and higher

*The flesh-eating, vicious dinosaur moves in to attack the horned vegetarian dinosaur. Nesting in the huge ferns were birds, partly covered with scales, showing their relation to the lower animals.*

forms of plant and animal life appeared. Many of these new forms learned to live on land, while others continued to inhabit the lakes, rivers, and oceans from which they came. A great variety of plants developed. Seaweeds, mosses, ferns, reeds, and rushes of great height formed dense jungles, for the weather was warm and there was an abundance of rainfall.

**The Age of the Dinosaurs** The time of the giant plants was also the age of the great reptiles. Some of these reptiles ate

Buffalo Museum of Science





flesh and preyed upon the lower animals and upon each other. But most of them were plant-eaters. They laid eggs in the sands along the shores, where the sun hatched them. These huge animals, forty to fifty feet in length, had very small brains and very little intelligence. They were different from one another in some ways, but they matched each other in ugliness. The giant reptiles are known as dinosaurs (dī'nō sōrs).

Queer-looking birds flew about and nested in the huge mosses and ferns of that faraway world. They were the ancestors of our modern birds, but they had sharp teeth in their jaws and claws on their wings. Some of them were very large, too large to fly, but they ran swiftly across the land.

**Mammals** Then the warm weather gradually gave way to cold. The reptiles could no longer find the large quantities of soft vegetation they needed, and they disappeared from the earth. In the meantime, warm-blooded animals which were covered with fur and had larger heads and a larger brain appeared. They were mammals. These new animals, the mastodon (mās'tō dōn) and mammoth, which were much larger than the elephants of today, roamed the land. Many of them were flesh-eaters and preyed upon other animals. The horse, a very small one, the saber-tooth tiger, the dog, the camel, and various kinds of monkeys also lived in that world.

Thus through millions of years the earth changed, until the sun no longer looked down upon a waste, but shone upon a variety of beautiful landscapes, valleys carpeted with flowers, grain, grasses, and hills. Mountains were covered with trees of many types, or, if the mountains were very high, with snow and ice. The lakes no

longer had barren shores, but were surrounded by woodlands. Numerous animals of various kinds inhabited this warmer land and the waters. The stage was set for the world's chief actor, man.

1. Approximately how long ago did the first living thing appear on the earth?
2. What sort of plants and animals were here in the age of the dinosaurs?
3. What early mammals inhabited the earth?

### HOW WE LEARN ABOUT EARLIEST MAN

Since there are no written records, we must rely upon the work of the archeologists (ar ke ðl'ō gists) for our knowledge of prehistoric times. Archeologists are men and women who have studied the art, weapons, tools, and other things left by the men of that far-off period. Such remains have been found in graves, caves, and in ancient cities that have been uncovered by digging into the earth's surface. The archeologists have pieced together the evidence and have rebuilt for us man's early life.

*An archeologist handles with care a piece of American Indian pottery uncovered in New Mexico.*

Chicago Natural History Museum

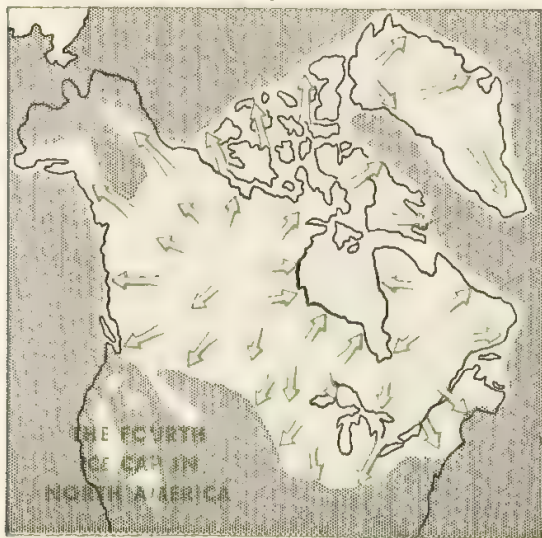


While archeologists have reconstructed the manner of living of prehistoric man, the scientists who study man's physical features, the anthropologists (ăn thrō pōl'ō jists), have been able to tell us what he looked like. From skeletons, or portions of skeletons, they have gained some idea of the size and posture of the bodies of our early ancestors.

**The Old Stone Age** The earliest stage of man's development we call the Old Stone Age, or the Paleolithic (pā'lē ō-lith'ic) Age, from the Greek words *palaios*, meaning *old*, and *lithos*, meaning a stone. This period lasted so long that we cannot sense such a span of time, perhaps as much as a million years! The Old Stone Age probably covers ninety-nine per cent of the total time that human beings have lived on this planet. During that time man's development was very slow.

**Glacial Epochs** Perhaps man did not have the intelligence to make more rapid progress, but his development might have been slowed up also by a series of four

*The fourth and last Ice Age lasted about 4,000 years. Then the huge glacier melted back to the far north.*



Ice Ages when thick sheets of ice covered much of Europe, Asia, and North America. Scientists believe that the first Ice Age started about a million years ago. As the great ice sheets, hundreds or even thousands of feet thick, spread southward, the weather became cold. Plants and many animals were destroyed, and some animals forced to move before the on-coming glaciers.

Each of the four glacial periods lasted for thousands of years, and then, between these periods for reasons unknown the ice began to melt and the weather grew mild. Animals again moved northward in the wake of the retreating ice and plant life flourished again. These periods between the glaciers lasted for thousands of years also.

**Earliest Man** The earliest man, who probably appeared about the time of the first glacial period, looked very different from a modern farmer, mechanic, or business-man. His head sloped backward above the eyes, leaving little space for the part of the brain used for thinking. Although he walked upright, he had a sort of slouch in his carriage. He thrust his head forward on his short, thick-set neck, as though he were trying to balance himself. His thick-set body was probably covered with hair, and his speech was limited largely to grunts and growls.

Early man's enemies were many, and he had none of the means of protection that they had. He could not run like the deer. He could not fight with claws, hoofs, beaks, or poison fangs. He did not have an animal's keen sight, hearing, or sense of smell for protection. Physically, it seems that he was not on a par with the animals around him, and so he was in constant danger from them. In this unequal fight he had one important asset, a keener mind.



*A new and valuable tool was created when clever workers among prehistoric men added a handle to their fist hatchets.*

Because of his keener mind, he could not only outwit the animals but also develop and improve himself. He chipped stones to make a weapon that fitted in his hand, which we call a fist hatchet. This no lower animal could do and this weapon, simple as it seems to us, was a marvelous invention for prehistoric man.

The remains of such a prehistoric man were found in Java in the East India Islands in 1891. There was not much of him left, only a part of a skull, some teeth, and the left thighbone. But using these, anthropologists reconstructed Java Man, the most primitive man about whom we know.

**Neanderthal Man** Skeletons of several men, women, and children who lived thousands of years later than Java Man have been found in different parts of the world. These were members of what is often called the Neanderthal (nē ān'dēr tāl') race of men because they are similar in development to a portion of skeleton found in the Neander Valley in Germany. These people lived in the last interglacial period and on into the last glacial period.

Neanderthal Man showed a marked advance over Java Man. He probably stood more nearly erect and he had a larger skull

than Java Man. His tools and weapons were more advanced, too. Some clever hunter had increased the usefulness of the fist hatchet by chipping one side until the edge was thin and sharp. For nearly 100,000 years men and boys took pride in new and better fist hatchets. Fathers probably explained to their sons that this was a remarkable all-purpose tool. It could be used as a hammer, knife, ax, scraper, awl, and dagger. And then one day some smart person fastened such a sharply pointed stone to a club with leather thongs. Now he had a spear or an ax with a handle, and no doubt all his neighbors immediately copied it!

Neanderthal Man also used fire to keep himself warm, to cook his food, and to frighten away from his cave the animals that preyed upon him. Thus in his effort to secure food and to defend himself, man had become an inventor. He had taken what he found in nature and had improved it.

*The Bushmen of Australia are still in a primitive stage of development. Note their clothing and weapons.*

Australian News and Information Bureau





**Cro-Magnon Man** The Neanderthal type of man disappeared, probably overcome by the glaciers or by superior and smarter people. At any rate, near the end of the last glacial period and in the last years of the Old Stone Age there lived a higher type of human being, Cro-Magnon (krō măn'yôn') Man, whose skeletons were found in France. His chin and forehead were prominent, and he was taller and had longer legs than Neanderthal Man.

In the caves with the skeletons were found *artifacts* (är'ti făkts), or tools, that tell us much about the Cro-Magnon Man. He had harpoons for fishing and hunting. He improved his stone tools until he could cut bone, horn, and ivory with them, making needles with which he sewed his clothing of animal skins. Nor were his achievements confined to practical things. In some caves of Europe are drawings and carvings on the walls, made by the Cro-Magnon men of that far-off time. Some of them are so good that it would take a very fine artist to do better work today. Man had begun to try to make his surroundings more beautiful.

**Religion of Early Man** The worship of supernatural beings was very important in the life of the early peoples. Such wonders of nature as the changing seasons, the fertile soil, the heavenly bodies, and floods filled them with fear. Everywhere about them were strange powers that they could neither see nor understand. In order to gain the good will of these spirits that seemed to be directing these forces of nature, early men performed religious exercises in connection with all of their activities. Even in time of death, they looked expectantly to the marvelous power of their gods; and so religious Cro-Magnon men carefully buried their dead in pro-

tected graves, with such tools and clothes as they thought might be needed in the next world.

The Paleolithic Age ended in Europe and in the Mediterranean area about ten thousand years ago. In other parts of the world it continued much longer. For instance, many American Indians were still living in the Paleolithic Age when Columbus discovered America in 1492. But for Europe, a new and more enlightened era was ushered in following the Paleolithic Age. Man was to make more progress.

1. What are the three sources of our knowledge of history? Which one can we rely upon for knowledge of prehistoric times?
2. Define: archeologist, anthropologist.
3. What is another name for Old Stone Age? What does it mean?
4. Describe the Ice Ages.
5. Explain the differences between the Java Man, Neanderthal Man, and Cro-Magnon Man.
6. What important things did man learn to do in the Old Stone Age?

#### GREATER ACHIEVEMENTS THE NEW STONE AGE

The New Stone, or Neolithic (nē ð lith'-ik), Age is named from the Greek word *neos*, "new," and *lithos*, "a stone." About ten thousand years ago Cro-Magnon Man disappeared. New peoples came into Europe from Asia or Africa or perhaps from both places. These people had been developing through the ages until physically they were much like modern man. They had invented new and better ways of doing things, and they progressed much more rapidly than the people of the Old Stone Age had been able to do.



Chicago Natural History Museum

*Look closely and you will see delicate carvings on the stones outside this New Stone Age man's cave home. Could you do any better, even with modern tools, than this artist of prehistoric times?*

**Neolithic Man** Although these people of the Neolithic Age continued to hunt some of their food, they learned to produce much of it themselves. To aid them in this, animals were domesticated, or tamed. The ox was used as a beast of burden. Cattle were raised in herds for their milk. The care of herds was an added responsibility, and their owners, although still wanderers, or *nomads* (nō'māds), were not so free as they had been. They now had to stay with their herds or move them about with them. The dog, which was the first animal to be domesticated, was not only a help in hunting but also a companion and protector of the family and the cattle.

Neolithic men also learned to domesticate plants to add to the amount of wild food they could find. And so gradually they became farmers. While the men hunted and protected their families, the women planted and tended flax, barley, and wheat. In

order to tend the grain and to harvest the crops, it was necessary that the family stay in one place for longer periods of time, so people became still more settled and learned to work together. That was a very important step in man's cultural progress.

Over the centuries Neolithic Man learned other arts. He found that the fiber of flax could be spun into thread and woven into linen cloth. The women used bone needles to sew cloth into simple garments. The men learned to fashion clay into pottery to hold their grain. They discovered that fire would harden the pottery. After long, tedious labor and patient effort, some of their toolmakers learned to improve still more their stone tools. By grinding and polishing the edges they made them sharper. Polishing stone implements became such a fine art that the New Stone Age has often been called the *Polished Stone Age*.

The men of this period made dugouts by burning out the center of long logs. Dugouts were the world's first boats and they enabled men to make more use of the rivers to get from place to place, another conquest of nature to serve man's needs.

In several localities wooden or wattled (made of twigs) huts were built. Branches of trees were woven together and covered with skins of animals or calked with mud



Drawn for LIFE by Matt Greene, copyright, TIME Inc.

*The huts of the lake dwellers were of various designs. This is one recently unearthed in Ireland.*

to make these huts. In the lakes of Switzerland there have been found the remains of wooden huts built on piles in the water to protect the occupants from wild animals or hostile tribes. These wooden and wattled huts were furnished with crude tables and benches made of wooden blocks.

**Races** By this time man had spread over most of the land surface of the earth. Three races had developed, the black, or Negroid race, the yellow, or Mongoloid (mǒng' gōl oid) race, and the white,

or Caucasian (kō kā' shǎn), race. The black race was found in central and southern Africa and in some of the Pacific islands. The yellow race included the Chinese, Japanese, and Mongolians of Asia, the Lapps of northeastern Europe, the Eskimos of the Arctic region, and the American Indians. The latter have been called the red race, but they were originally part of the yellow race. They probably came to this continent at the time when Asia and North America were fastened together where the Bering Strait now is. The white race lived in Europe and north Africa as well as in parts of southern Asia. Both the yellow and the black races peopled the Malay Peninsula and part of the islands of the Pacific.

1. How long ago did the Neolithic Age begin?
2. What does the word Neolithic mean?
3. List the chief things that Neolithic Man learned to do.
4. What are the three races of mankind? Where did each live in the New Stone Age?

## THE USE OF METALS USHERS THE BRONZE AGE

**Copper Tools** About five or six thousand years ago, a new age dawned for man. Around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea men found that copper could be used to make better weapons and tools than stone had made. Copper can be hammered into shape to make knives, daggers, axes, hammers, and other simple tools. The edges soon became dull, however, because copper is a soft metal. Then some clever person or persons found that by combining melted tin with melted copper a much harder substance could be produced. This new metal was called bronze.



# I · Milestones Toward Democracy

The story that makes up world history is the story of man's slow but steady climb toward liberty and freedom for himself and his neighbors.



In the family group of the Stone Ages the father was absolute master. His position was maintained by brute force until he became old and weak. Group co-operation was unknown.



When man learned to domesticate plants, some of the family stayed home to care for them. Then families became more settled.



When clans grew so numerous as to form a tribe, with an elected chieftain, early man reached the first milestone on the long, hard road to a democratic way of life, a goal that he was not to attain for thousands of years. Although the chieftain held his position through physical strength, he was chosen by the tribe.

**Bronze Tools** The Bronze Age dawned gradually, about four thousand years ago. People did not throw away their old stone tools suddenly and begin to use bronze ones. Moreover, the Bronze Age did not spread rapidly to all parts of the world. Many people were still in the Stone Age when Columbus discovered America, and in some parts of the world whole tribes were still in the Stone Age at the beginning

of the twentieth century. But when bronze came to be used widely in any one section of the world, we say that those people were living in the Bronze Age.

The use of metal was an important step forward to a higher level of culture. The new tools opened up many possibilities for him. Contrast metal weapons with stone ones and you will realize how much more efficient man could be with his bronze

# I · Milestones of Living

Throughout the many thousands of years since man first appeared on earth he has been toiling and struggling, not only to keep alive, but also to make his life easier, pleasanter, and more rewarding. In every age a few exceptional people have helped mankind pull himself up, slowly and with great difficulty, to a higher and higher level of culture. The outstanding achievements of man in that upward climb we may call *milestones of living*. They appeared in many areas of life, including Science and Invention, Education, and the Arts.



a hatchet from stone,

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

Some of our far-distant ancestors who lived before the day of written history were remarkable people. They invented tools to work with that formed the foundation of our own living today. If we knew their names, we would be glad to honor the men who, for example, first thought of creating



or wove threads into pieces of cloth,



or lifted weights with a lever, or invented



other basic tools.

tools. They helped bring him to the doorway of civilization.

By the dawn of civilization, mankind had learned much. Lacking the means of protection that lower animals had, he had developed his superior wits and had become in a real sense the master of his environment. He had learned speech, the use of fire, the use of bronze weapons. He had learned to live in families and in tribes for protec-

tion. He had learned to plant and reap, to cook his food, to sew, to count, to build houses for shelter, and to dig out a log and use it as a boat.

Among these early men there were brilliant inventors. Although their names are lost in the dim past, they were equal in importance to the greatest of those whose names have come down to us. For example, the men who invented the spear,

As soon as early people began to live together in a family group, the father and mother had to teach their children how to make their tools and weapons. They taught them to hunt with the bow and arrow, to fish with the harpoon, to handle the dug-out boats, and other necessary ways of getting food and taking care of themselves. So the earliest forms of education began within the family, as children learned from parents.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

Since prehistoric people could not write, they expressed themselves through pictures and articles they created. So they painted pictures on the walls of their cave homes, carved the handles of their weapons, and shaped clay into attractive pottery.



the bow and arrow, and the smelting of metal were geniuses. Three basic principles upon which modern machinery depends were known and used by prehistoric men. They applied these principles in the wheel, the inclined plane, and the lever.

Yes, mankind had traveled a long way. Looking back over the long, hard struggle he had made during the hundreds of thousands of years of the Stone and early

Metal Ages, he could be proud of his progress.

1. Why was the use of bronze a great step forward for mankind?
2. When did the Bronze Age begin in the area of the eastern Mediterranean?
3. Since man's first appearance on earth what things had he learned to do by the time history was first recorded?





## The Earliest Civilizations



Did it ever occur to you that hundreds of the things which seem so ordinary to you were once thrilling, new inventions? The *pen* you use, the *bricks* of your school building, the *letters* you put on a piece of *paper*

to pass your thoughts along to others, the *glass* out of which you drink, the *chair* on which you sit, the *wheels* on your automobile, all of these are so familiar that you take them for granted. Although they have been improved over the years, they were first thought of and invented thousands of years ago in the lands we now call Asia and Africa.

The same is true of our *ideals* and *beliefs*. People today generally believe that there is one God, and that honor and honesty are necessary for human happiness. But these beliefs and ideals came to mankind slowly, and their origin, too, goes far back in history to Asia and Africa.

In this unit we are to see how the peoples  
Our title has been adapted to Egyptian hieroglyphics.

of the Ancient Orient, of India, and of China developed the first civilizations, how their ideas took shape, and what tools and processes they invented.

The Ancient Orient consisted of Egypt and an area known as the Fertile Crescent. As you can see from the map on page 28, Egypt stretched along the Nile River, from its mouth southward for about seven hundred miles. The Fertile Crescent is a strip of land in southwest Asia, north of the Arabian Desert. (See the map on page 43.) Crescent-shaped like the new moon, it starts at the mouth of the Tigris-Euphrates (tī'grīs-û frā'tēz) rivers at the Persian Gulf, and stretches northwestward to Syria and Asia Minor. It continues down along the eastern shore of the Mediterranean Sea to



the Sinai Peninsula. This area was very important to the history of the world. The fertile soil and favorable climate encouraged people to settle in the area and try



to improve their ways of living. The rivers and level land made travel easy so that trade could be carried on, too.

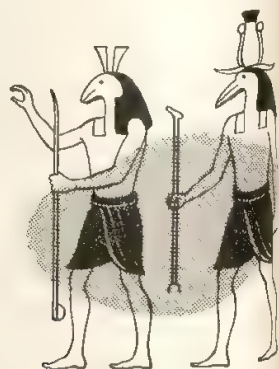
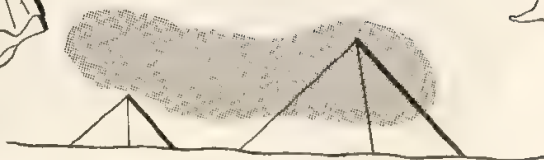
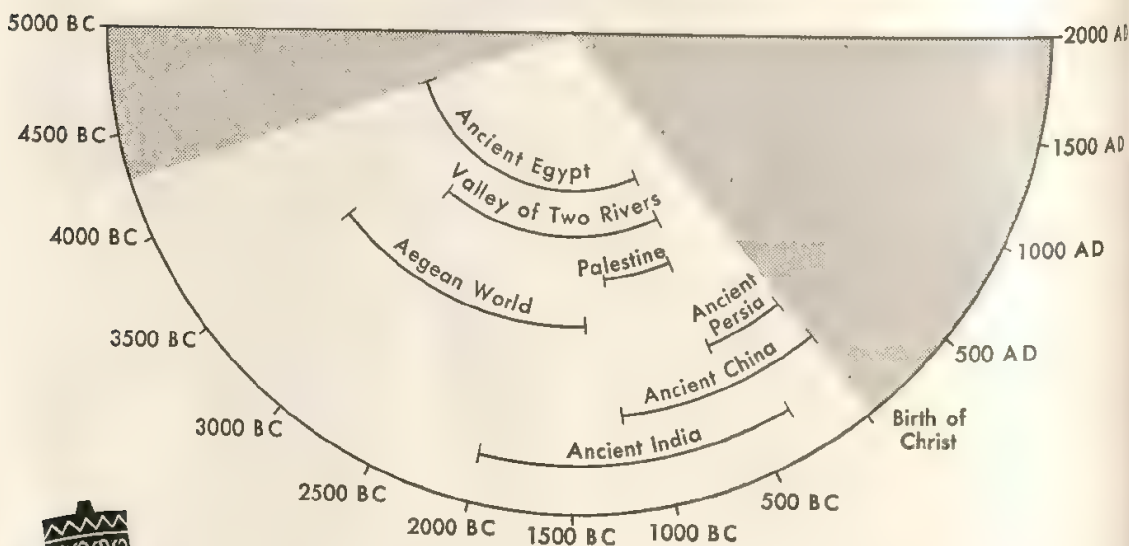
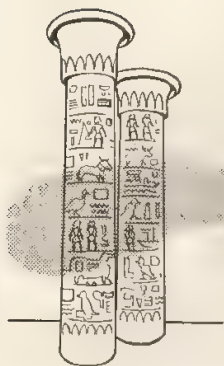
The Ancient Orient is important, for in those distant lands were laid many of the foundations of your civilization.

Unless man is free to share in the development and control of his culture, he cannot be happy and useful. So the struggle for a free way of life, which we call the democratic way, has been a very important part of man's effort to achieve a finer culture. In this book you will see how mankind has faced his two great problems: how to improve his way of life, his culture, and how to make that way of life more and more democratic. Sometimes man made great progress, and sometimes he slipped backward as the centuries rolled along. His failures, strivings, and achievements make up the history of the world.

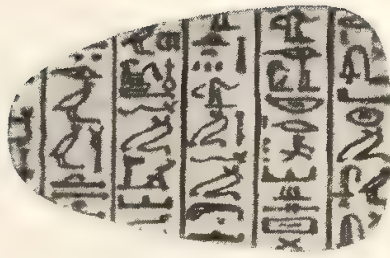
From the point of view of our own culture, the peoples about whom you will learn in this unit are important, for they invented tools, created beautiful things, developed a certain respect for law and order, and perhaps most important of all, had the imagination and the persistence to create systems of writing by means of which records were kept.

There is much in the earliest civilizations that will seem very modern to you.









### 3

## *The Egyptians Build a Civilization*

If you had been studying history a century ago, you would have spent very little time on ancient Egypt, for historians knew little about it since they could not read the writing that the ancient Egyptians left behind them. You would have missed a great deal, for Egypt is a most interesting country. The huge pyramids, the mysterious sphinx, and other fascinating remains of life in ancient Egypt have a story to tell. Now you can know that story, for the ancient Egyptian writing has been deciphered and historians have read thousands of scrolls found in the tombs of that country. The secrets of the ancient Egyptians are no longer secrets.

The ancient Egyptians built an amazing civilization, largely because of three things they learned to do. First, they organized a form of government so that people could live and work together in harmony. Second, they invented a system of writing so that records of the knowledge they had ac-

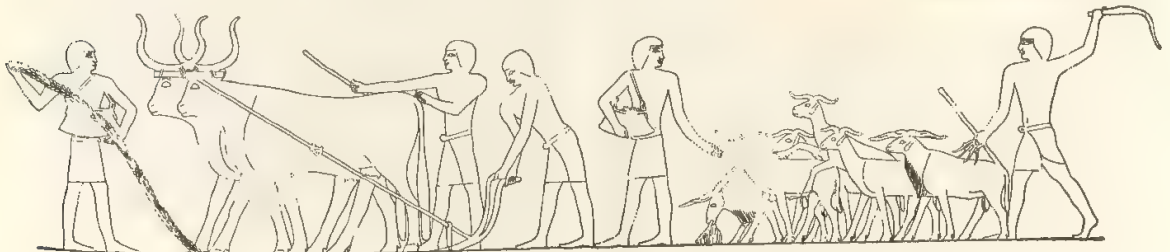
quired could be kept and passed on to succeeding generations. Third, they discovered and taught themselves how to use metals. These three remarkable steps in the progress of mankind, a system of government, written records, and the use of metals, were probably first achieved in Egypt.

### GEOGRAPHIC CONDITIONS SHAPE EGYPT'S GROWTH

The prehistoric peoples who roamed about northern Africa in search of food found the geographic conditions of what we now call Egypt favorable to a settled and prosperous life. Although the northern tip of Egypt is about as far north as the northern tip of Florida, its climate is much milder. The northeast trade winds blowing across the hot sands of the Arabian Desert and over the waters of the eastern Mediterranean make Egypt a warm land. The hot, dry sands of the deserts of northern

*This wall relief found in the tomb of a pharaoh shows Egyptian farmers sowing seed (figure at left) and working it into the soil with a cattle-drawn plow and the feet of sheep. What attracts the sheep?*

Metropolitan Museum of Art



Africa also help to keep the temperatures high. There is practically no rainfall in the Sahara Desert or in Egypt. It rains only two or three times in a century, except in the narrow strip of land along the Mediterranean Sea. However, there was enough moisture for farming, for the Nile River flows northward through Egypt from its source in the heart of Africa.

### WITHOUT THE NILE THERE COULD BE NO EGYPT

Heavy rains in the highlands of Ethiopia swell the Nile, causing it to overflow its banks as it flows through Egypt on its way to the Mediterranean Sea. For a distance of five to fifteen miles on either side of the river, the flood waters enrich the land with

large quantities of fine topsoil. The flood season is the late summer and early autumn. However, because of the rich soil and warm climate, it is possible for farmers to raise two or three crops each year before the wet season comes. The ancient Greek traveler and writer, Herodotus (hĕ rŏd'ŏ-tŭs), truly called Egypt "the gift of the Nile," for without the Nile there could be no Egypt.

Part of the rich soil is carried by the river to its mouth, where the current of the river is checked when it meets the quiet waters of the Mediterranean. Here the river has for hundreds of centuries dropped its burden, building up the delta through which the Nile makes its way to the sea. The triangular shape of land that has been built up here is called a delta because it is the shape of the fourth capital letter of the Greek alphabet, *delta*.

### THE EARLY EGYPTIANS ADVANCED IN CIVILIZATION

**Agriculture** To the long strip of fertile soil along the Nile River the wandering, nomadic prehistoric people of northern Africa came with their cattle and their dogs. Here they settled in family groups and began to cultivate the land. Since the land in Egypt must be watered in the dry seasons, after the floods have receded, the people learned to irrigate it, and so to take better advantage of what nature had given them. They dug basins to hold the water and ditches to carry it to the fields. They invented the shadoof (shă dŏof') to lift the water from the river to the basins.

Throughout Egypt's long, long history, agriculture continued to be the chief occupation of the people. Methods changed little after the first important inventions,



but these inventions *were* important. The Egyptians used their wooden plow with which to till the deep, black soil of their land. Wheat was sown by hand, but they used a sickle to harvest it. The cut grain was threshed under the feet of oxen which were driven over it. Wheat, onions, peas, garlic, cucumbers, and other vegetables were raised in abundance so long as the irrigation ditches worked. The Egyptians also learned gradually how to grow a variety of fruits, including watermelons, lemons, dates, and figs. So the basis of our modern, vast system of agriculture was formed in Egypt thousands of years ago.

**Government** The Egyptians were an intelligent people. In order to live and work harmoniously in groups, they set up a form of government, under a chieftain, or kinglet, for each group. At first such a group consisted of the families belonging to one clan; but gradually the group came to include all those living in a certain territory, regardless of blood relationship. A small city or town was the center of each of these communities. This *city-state* type of government was the most important contribution of the Egyptians to the development of government. By replacing the kinship (family) state with the *civil* (made up of citizens) state, one ruler was able to control a larger area. Anyone living or holding property within the territory of the civil state was a member of the community and a subject of the king. Because the king of the Egyptian city-state had charge of the water supply, he had great power. He could shut off the water supply from his enemies and force them to leave the locality.

Gradually, as they traded up and down the river, strong rulers conquered their neighboring, weaker states. Other states



*The shadoof lifted the water from the river up over the bank, where it was emptied into irrigation ditches.*

united willingly in order to enjoy the benefits of trade with one another and their irrigation systems. Eventually all of the small communities were brought together into two large kingdoms. These were Lower Egypt, around the Nile Delta, and Upper Egypt, farther up the Nile. About 3400 B.C., a strong ruler of the Upper Kingdom succeeded in uniting Upper and Lower Egypt into a permanent union. This was probably King Menes (mē'nēz), the first man in all history whose name has come down to us. He built a beautiful city, the first city in the world, later called Memphis, to be the capital of his kingdom. Memphis remained the capital of Egypt for 1500 years.

**Written Language** Like most primitive peoples, the Egyptians first used pictures as writing. Later they began to use a phonetic, or sound, writing, each character representing a certain sound in their

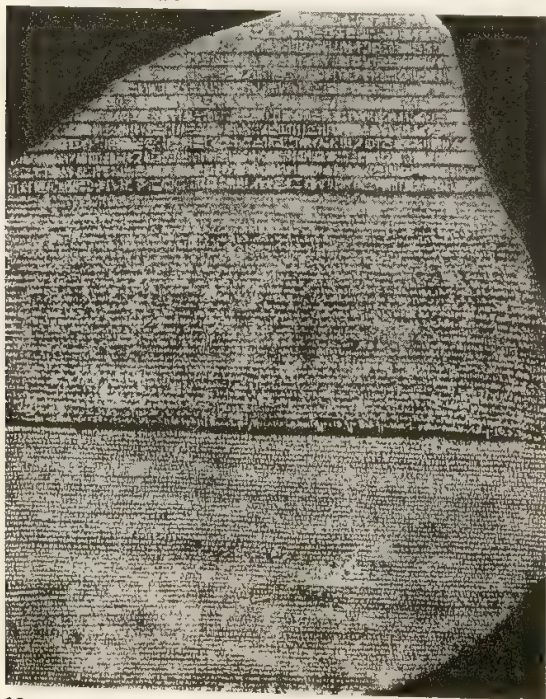


language. For instance, the word for mouth was *ro*. Therefore, wherever that sound occurred, whether it meant mouth or not, the picture of a mouth was used to express it in writing. As time passed, these symbols became more and more simplified. The Egyptians invented a 24-letter alphabet, too, which made writing simpler. But the ancient Egyptians never got to the point where they used only a letter alphabet such as we use. The older sign writing remained in general use.

Egyptian writing is found on the walls of their temples and tombs, where it was carved in the stone. The Greeks who discovered the inscriptions were unable to read them. They called the writing hieroglyphics (*hī ēr ō glīf'iks*), meaning "sacred engraved signs," because these signs were written by the learned priests.

*On the Rosetta Stone is carved a decree of Ptolemy V, king of Egypt around 200 B.C. Part of the stone is missing, but it solved an ancient riddle.*

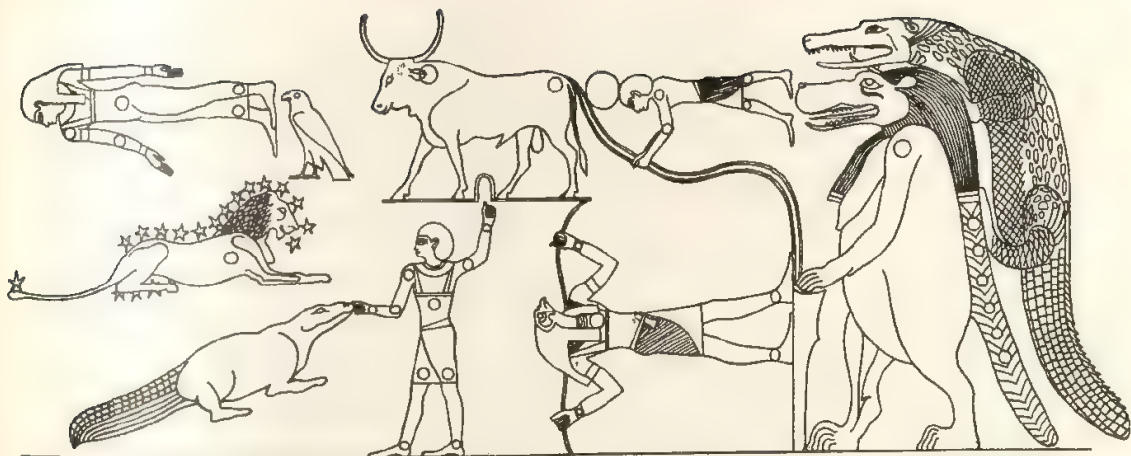
British Information Services



**The Rosetta Stone** It was many centuries later, during a military campaign in Egypt about 1800 A.D., that a French soldier found a large, black stone with an inscription on it in three different scripts. One was Greek, which scholars could read; one was the spoken language of the common people in one period of Egyptian history; and the third was hieroglyphics. Scholars worked for years trying to decipher the hieroglyphics. Finally, a scholar, Champollion (*shān pōlyōn'*) solved the mystery. Thus, after twenty years of work, the scholars found the key to the ancient hieroglyphics.

**Paper and Ink** Because the Egyptians needed a way to keep their everyday business and tax records, they made a kind of paper out of a reed called papyrus (*pā pī'rūs*). This reed grew in the marshes along the Nile. Since reeds are hollow, they can be cut open and pressed into flat strips. This the Egyptians did, and fastened them together with edges overlapping to make sheets of the desired length and width. Pounding and rubbing these sheets produced a smooth, tough paper. After the sheets were written upon, they were rolled up in the form of a scroll. The scrolls ranged from five to twelve inches in width and from twenty to forty or more feet in length. For ink the Egyptians thickened water with vegetable gum and soot. By cutting a reed to a point, they made a pen so satisfactory that it was never improved upon until the modern steel pen appeared thousands of years later.

**Calendar** In order to keep records, there had to be some method of reckoning time. Among primitive peoples the length of the time from new moon to



Metropolitan Museum of Art

The Egyptians believed that their gods and other mythical beings lived in the heavens. Stargazers today look for some of the figures shown on this ancient tomb painting made about 3000 years ago.

new moon provided a measure of time. This is the basis for the *lunar*, or moon calendar. Such a calendar could not easily be divided into seasons, however. So the clever Egyptian farmers drew up another type of calendar based on the sun's year, a *solar* calendar. The Egyptians were the only ancient people to have such a calendar. Their year was divided into three seasons, the Inundation, when the floods came, the Coming Forth, when the plants grew, and the Harvest. Each season was divided into four months of thirty days each, making a years of 360 days. The last five days of the year were set aside as a period of feasting. The Egyptian calendar was the one from which our present calendar came, and its invention records the earliest date in history, 4236 B.C.

**Metals** Another important contribution made by the early Egyptians to mankind's progress was the use of metals. There is no record of how this came about, but the Egyptians early learned to smelt metals in a closed furnace. They got copper from the Sinai (s'i'ni) Peninsula, and even before Menes united Upper and Lower

Egypt, skillful workmen had begun to make chisels, axes, and saws of copper and bronze. With these new implements the rulers could have huge blocks of stone cut from the Nile cliffs with which to construct immense monuments and buildings. Egyptian traders also got gold from people who lived far up the Nile River.

Although the Egyptians of the time could not have known it, their discovery of the use of metals was the most important one since their own ancient ancestors had learned to use fire thousands of years before. Gradually this discovery of the use of metals brought an end to the Stone Ages and mankind, unknowingly, stood at the beginning of a new and wonderful era, the Metal Age.

1. What is meant by the Ancient Orient? the Fertile Crescent?
2. Why does the Ancient Orient have such a warm climate?
3. What is a delta?
4. Why is Egypt called the "gift of the Nile"?
5. Mention some of their methods and the tools by which Egyptian farmers did their work.



6. How was the Egyptian writing developed? What was it called? How did the modern world learn to read Egyptian writing?
7. What was a city-state?
8. How were the scattered communities of Egypt combined into one country?
9. Who was the first ruler of all Egypt? When did he live?
10. What is the difference between a solar and a lunar calendar? Explain the divisions in the Egyptian calendar.
11. Where did Egyptians find copper and gold?

### THE PYRAMID AGE (3000-2500 B.C.)

**Power of the Pharaoh** The kings of Egypt were held in such awe that they were never mentioned by name. They were called pharaoh (fâ'rô), meaning "Great House," or the pharaoh's palace. As time passed, the pharaoh came to have absolute power over his subjects. The Egyptians believed that the gods themselves

had once ruled Egypt for a long time, and that finally one of them had left his son, whose mother was an Egyptian maiden, to rule. Thus the pharaohs, descendants of the gods, were looked upon as partly divine. Even the greatest nobles fell down before them and kissed the ground where they had walked. It was a great honor to carry sandals or chairs for the pharaoh. This idea of the "divine right of kings" was to live in the world for a long time.

The pharaoh had a busy life. He made the laws and saw that they were carried out. He acted as supreme judge when disputes were appealed to him. He commanded the army, had charge of the irrigation system, proclaimed the holy days and the ritual for religious worship, and ordered taxes in the form of cattle, grain, linen, and lumps of gold collected by local officers and sent to him at Memphis.

**Pyramids** The most ancient monuments ever made by man are the



*The tombs of the pharaohs contain priceless treasures. Archeologists who open them reconstruct Egyptian civilization through their discoveries.*



tombs of the pharaohs which were built on the sands of ancient Egypt. As time passed and pharaohs gained more wealth and power, larger tombs were constructed. By 3000 B.C., enormous pyramids were built to contain the bodies of the dead pharaohs. On the edge of the desert not far from Cairo these huge monuments to a marvelous civilization still stand. The largest one, known as the Great Pyramid, was built by Pharaoh Khufu (kʰʊfʰʊ), or Cheops (kē'-ōps) as the Greeks called him. The stone was cut out of the quarries with copper tools and brought across the desert over a road especially built for this purpose. It has been estimated that it took ten years to build the road and that four million men worked on it. Twenty years were required for building the pyramid itself. It contains 2,300,000 granite blocks, weighing an average of two and a half tons each. It is a solid mass of stone except for the burial chambers for Khufu and his family deep within it. All the labor was done by slaves, 100,000 of them, whose lives meant nothing to their royal master. They were compelled to toil painfully hard, for they had none of the modern machinery that makes such work easier. However, the engineers of that great project were brilliant. They provided their workmen with all sorts of moving equipment, such as rollers, pulleys, levers, and ropes. Their measurements were so exact that the blocks of stone fitted together with scarcely a seam showing in the entire structure.

Near this huge tomb a temple was erected where the priests offered sacrifices and performed sacred ceremonies for the benefit of the dead pharaoh's soul.

**Religion** The pyramids were meant to be safe places for keeping the

bodies of the pharaohs until they would be resurrected in another life. If the soul were to be safe and happy in the hereafter, the ancient Egyptians reasoned, the body would have to be carefully preserved. So it was placed in a huge stone box called a sarcophagus (sär kōf'ä gūs). The preserved body is called a mummy. Food, clothing, furniture, and the bodies of slaves were placed in the tomb with the sarcophagus to take care of the needs of the pharaoh in the next world. Because the journey to the next world was believed to be long and difficult, the Egyptians assumed it could be made easier by offering prayers and charms to satisfy the gods. Collections of such charms and prayers were gathered into books which we call the *Books of the Dead*. These were placed in the tombs so that the soul would know what to say and do to meet successfully each danger that he might meet on his way.

The temples that Egyptian architects designed and had built were dedicated to the worship of different gods. The Egyptians were *polytheistic* (pōl i thē is'tik), that is, they worshipped many gods. Each god had temples, priests, and special ceremonies connected with his worship. Gradually certain gods came to be more generally worshipped than others. Re (rā) was the sun god who sailed across the sky in his golden boat. Osiris (ō sī'rīs), son of Re, was the god who made the Nile overflow and the grain to grow. As king of the dead, he judged the souls of men. The Egyptians regarded their pharaohs as descendants of Osiris.

**Arts and Handicrafts** The discovery of the uses of metals opened a new world of opportunity to skilled workers, whose keen eyes and clever fingers were

to add beauty and charm to life. Metal workers were needed also to make the tools that were coming into wider use. Jewelers and coppersmiths created beautiful ornaments, which only the rich could afford. Some Egyptian boys preferred to learn one of many other trades. Skilled craftsmen were needed for making pottery,

the pottery, toys, musical instruments, jewelry, and other useful and beautiful things these remarkable people created.

## FEUDALISM FLOURISHED AROUND

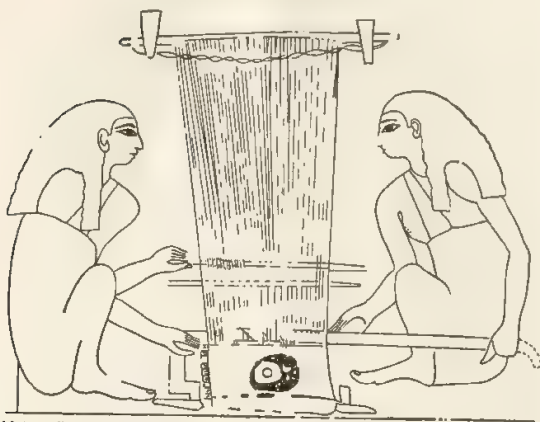
2000 B.C.

**Feudalism** Although the ways in which the Egyptian people lived did not change rapidly over the centuries, the government did change as it tried to solve the nation's problems. For example, the pharaoh had become a mere figurehead by 2000 B.C. He had no real power. The nobles who helped the pharaohs rule the country made their positions hereditary. That is, they handed their jobs down from father to son, and thus, because they acted so independently, they became powerful enough to overshadow the pharaoh.

The period of the nobles is called the *feudal* period in Egyptian history. Under feudalism the land was divided into large estates and all the people and activities of one estate were ruled and directed by a noble. The nobles paid little attention to the pharaoh.

During the feudal period also the influence of Memphis declined and Thebes (thēbz), farther up the river, became the chief city of Egypt.

**Trade** The Egyptians raised so much wheat that Egypt became known as the granary of the Mediterranean region. The rich soil yielded more agricultural products than they needed, so the Egyptians developed an extensive trade. Wheat, fruits, and other farm products were exchanged around the eastern Mediterranean for things the Nile Valley lacked. In their desire to reach distant lands, the pharaohs had a canal dug which connected the east-



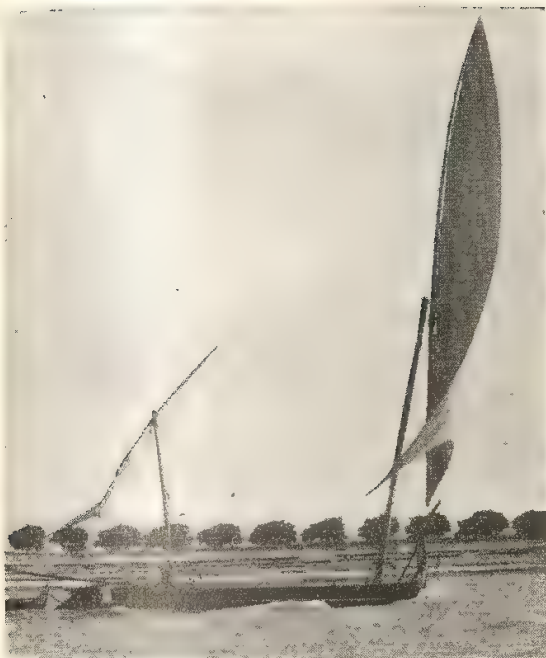
Metropolitan Museum of Art

*Egyptian women wove cloth on horizontal looms. They worked with the warp and the woof, as machines do today.*

carving wood and stone, weaving cloth, making furniture and boats, and working with glassware. Some of the exquisite pieces of Egyptian glassware may still be seen in our museums.

The paintings of Egyptian artists commonly adorned the walls of their temples and tombs. They give us valuable glimpses of everyday life in ancient Egypt. However, the artists had not yet learned how to use the third dimension to show depth in their paintings. They painted people and animals from a side view, giving them a flat and unrealistic appearance.

Many pieces of the handiwork of Egyptian craftsmen have been found in the tombs of the rulers buried along the desert's edge. So we can see the fabrics they wove,



Courtesy Canadian Pacific Steamships

*The Egyptians were probably the first people to use sails. Their slender boats plied up and down the Nile.*

ernmost branch of the Nile with the Red Sea. Now their boats, equipped with large white sails, could ply up and down the Nile, pass through the canal into the Red Sea and across the Gulf of Suez to the Sinai Peninsula. Other boats pushed out into the Mediterranean Sea and visited the lands along its eastern coast. These brought back cargoes of cattle, fish, and wine from Syria and Asia Minor.

Overland trade routes were developed, too. Caravans of donkeys made their way far into the interior of Africa, where they obtained valuable woods, gold, ivory, and ostrich feathers.

**Cliff Tombs** During the Feudal Age the Egyptians stopped building pyramids. Instead, they carved tombs out of the sides of the cliffs along the desert bordering the Nile Valley. They dug passageways leading far back into the cliff and

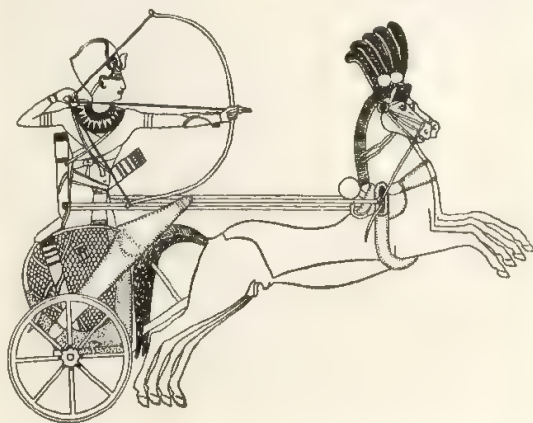
there hewed the burial chambers out of the rock. Large statues and imposing entrances were constructed at the openings of the tombs. On the walls were written the names and often stories from the lives of the people buried there. Building these tombs was not so costly in life and energy as the pyramids had been. Neither did they require the engineering skill of the architects who planned the pyramids, but they are treasure houses for our study of Egyptian civilization because costly furniture, jewels, and works of art were buried with the nobles.

**Hyksos** About 1800 B.C. a warlike people from Asia, called the Hyksos (hik'sōs), conquered Egypt. They ruled it for about two hundred years. The fierce Hyksos introduced the horse and chariot into Egypt, which the native farmers, who had been a peaceful people, learned to use as instruments of war.

During their long struggle to rid the country of invaders, the Egyptians themselves became a warlike people. After they had regained control of their land, a dynasty of warring pharaohs ruled Egypt. (A dynasty is a family of kings who rule in

*This ornamental tomb relief shows an ancient Pharaoh shooting from his two-horse war chariot.*

Metropolitan Museum of Art







*This is the first of a series of Trade Maps which will follow the development of world trade. It began when the ancient Egyptian sailors first went over to Crete to get products they needed.*



succession.) They conquered the lands of southwestern Asia and transformed the kingdom of Egypt into an empire.

1. What powers did the Egyptian pharaohs have?
2. Describe the Great Pyramid. Why did the nobles of the Feudal Age build cliff tombs instead of pyramids? What have we learned about Egypt from these tombs?
3. How did the Egyptian religion affect the care of the dead? What is a polytheistic religion?
4. What skills did the Egyptian craftsmen have?
5. Why did the Egyptians carry on trade? Where?
6. What was the Feudal Period in Egypt?
7. Who were the Hyksos and what changes did they bring to Egypt?

## EGYPT REACHES THE HEIGHT OF HER POWER (1580-1150 B.C.)

**Great Pharaohs** An empire consists of a country and the lands it rules outside its own territory. The Egyptian empire was built largely during the Eighteenth Dynasty. In the period of the Egyptian Empire, several rulers were famous. One of these was a woman, Queen Hatshepsut (hăt shĕp'sût), who proved to be more capable than many male monarchs. Queen Hatshepsut was the first famous woman in history. Not only the members of the royal family, but all women except the slaves were in a favored position in Egypt, for women were allowed to own and inherit property.

The most powerful and probably the most important ruler of the empire was Thutmose III (thŭt'mōs). In the middle of the fifteenth century B.C., he led his armies

into Syria, and even beyond into the Fertile Crescent, and made vast territorial conquests. The people whom Thutmose III conquered paid tribute to Egypt but were never loyal to their conqueror.

The reign of Ramses (rām'sēz) II stands out for a number of reasons. His was the longest reign in Egyptian history (1292–1225 B.C.), and it brought the imperial period to a close.

It was probably Ramses II who held the Hebrews in bondage and from whose tyranny they finally fled to another country. In less than a century after the death of Ramses, Egypt lost all of her territory outside the Nile Valley.

**Temple at Karnak** During the empire period, the Egyptians again showed their skill as builders by erecting many magnificent temples. The temple to the god Amon was the greatest of them all. It was located at the ancient city of Thebes, which has long since disappeared. But on its site is the modern village of Karnak (kär'nāk). Hence the temple is usually called the Temple of Karnak. This magnificent temple consisted of many courts and halls. Its great hall was the most impressive in any Egyptian temple. In the central part were twelve massive pillars of stone, in two rows. Each pillar was seventy-nine feet high; and the capital (top piece) was so large that one hundred men could be crowded on it. The shaft was so thick that six men with outstretched arms could just reach around it. On the sides were rows of smaller columns. This giant hall was 338 feet wide and 178 feet deep. On the pillars and the walls were enormous and brightly-colored carvings in red, green, and blue. They pictured the conquests of the empire and its religious and social development

through the many pharaohs that ruled Egypt while the temple was being built. The temple must have been a dazzling sight as it stood in the bright Egyptian sunshine.

The temple was not designed by one ruler; instead, many pharaohs in turn, had a part in its building, which continued over 1800 years. Although it was completed by the kings of the period of the empire, the temple was begun long before the empire was established.

**Religion of the Empire** Because of the great wealth of the gods (which of course was the wealth of the priests who attended the temples) and the superstition of the people, the priests had tremendous power, which they often misused. Even the nobles and pharaohs stood in awe of them. Finally, a youthful pharaoh, who ruled from 1375 to 1358 B.C., came to believe there must be a supreme god

*Compare the size of the pillar in the Karnak Temple with the height of the man standing beside it.*

Ewing Galloway



greater than the local gods of the Nile Valley. This he thought was the sun god, whom he called Aton (*ā'ton*). The king ordered all the old temples closed and the priests put out. He even changed his own name to Ikhnaton (*ik'nä tön*), which meant "Aton is satisfied." But the superstitions which the people had been taught made them fear the change. The priests who were deprived of their good incomes and easy lives whipped up trouble for the young reformer. As soon as he died, the priests regained their old power, and Aton was forgotten.

**Social Classes** For centuries there were only two classes of society in Egypt, the nobles on the one hand and the freemen and slaves on the other. By far the largest number of people were the slaves. The freemen carried on the handicrafts. As industry grew, a wealthy middle class arose. They continued to engage in handicrafts and commerce, or, because they learned to read and write, held government positions.

*Some ancient Egyptian wrote and illustrated, on papyrus, the story of Osiris, god and judge of the underworld.*

Metropolitan Museum of Art



The slaves and peasants lived in small, mud huts with thatched roofs and dirt floors and almost no furniture. In the cities the huts were built in rows somewhat like army barracks. Life in these huts was as drab as the huts themselves. The children wore no clothing. The food consisted of coarse bread and vegetables, such as cucumbers, peas, onions, and beans. The slaves and peasants worked long hours, and very hard. They died young from malnutrition and overwork.

By contrast, the upper classes of noblemen and the rich middle class enjoyed life in their light, airy houses made of sun-dried brick. Often the walls and floors were painted with pictures of trees, gardens, and cool marshes, and the ceilings were decorated to look like a starlit sky. Richly carved and inlaid chairs, couches, and tables added comfort and beauty. Chests stored their fine clothing and jewels. Each house had its garden of flowers and trees. The country estates were large, with surrounding fields from which the food supply came. In the city or country, the well-to-do ate well, too. On their tables were meats, cheese, figs, melons, grapes, dates, milk, beer, and wine.

**Dress** Both men and women of the wealthy classes were interested in their personal appearance. They wore white clothes, sometimes embroidered in beautiful colors. Their clothing was made of linen of such fine quality that it is often difficult to tell whether the pieces found in the tombs are linen or silk. The Egyptian air was very dry, and oil was used freely to care for the skin. While the women watched in their mirrors of burnished copper, slaves applied paint to their mistresses' eyebrows and rouge to their cheeks.



**Education** The peasant children never attended school, but there were schools where the sons of noblemen learned the art of writing hieroglyphics and some simple arithmetic, including fractions, multiplication, and division. Some of the boys went to a higher school where they were taught astronomy and religion by the priests. Egyptians were very much interested in astronomy because they thought that the stars influenced the course of their lives. By 1400 B.C. they had discovered five of the planets.

Girls had no formal schooling, but were trained by their mothers to manage a home and the household slaves.

**Recreation** Until mechanical toys became popular in the nineteenth century, children's toys everywhere seem to have been much the same from the earliest times. An Egyptian child had balls made of leather or papyrus and dolls of

clay and wood. The Egyptian boys and girls enjoyed playing with their pet animals, too. The men engaged in some of the same sports that give pleasure to people today. Hunting was one of the chief of these. Sometimes in light boats they hunted for birds and animals in the marshes along the river. At other times they went in groups to the far south to hunt the lion. Swimming and boating on the Nile were favorite forms of recreation.

#### THE EGYPTIAN EMPIRE GOES THE WAY OF ALL EMPIRES

After Ramses II several factors led Egypt to decline in power and importance. The twenty-first dynasty, which took control of Egypt in 1090 B.C., was marked by weak leaders. Quarrels over religion caused civil strife and disunity. A series of invasions destroyed the independence of Egypt. The Assyrians invaded from the

*About 1400 B.C. a painter of ancient Egypt portrayed his countrymen at their favorite sports of fishing and fowling. The men are catching fish and birds while the women gather lotus blossoms.*

Metropolitan Museum of Art



Fertile Crescent in 671 B.C. Egypt regained its independence for a time, but in 525 B.C. the forces of the rising Persian Empire came into the valley of the Nile. When Alexander the Great of Macedonia conquered the Persian Empire two hundred years later, he brought Egypt under his rule. Finally, in 30 B.C., the Roman Empire annexed Egypt.



*Egyptian pottery was skillfully created and decorated to beautify the homes of the few people who could afford to buy it.*

No other country of the world has had as long a history as Egypt. From the invention of the calendar to the conquest of Egypt by Rome, more than forty-two centuries passed. During most of that period Egypt was building a glorious history for which we owe her much. Many of the things the early Egyptians gave to the world have been greatly improved, but the Egyptians were the first to think of them. Perhaps most important of all, the Egyptians were the first people in the world to start out as a united nation along the road which we call civilization.

1. Name the most famous emperors of Egypt and tell for what each was noted.

2. Describe the Temple of Karnak and tell why it was so remarkable.
3. What classes of society were there in Egypt? How did their methods of living differ?
4. How did the education of an Egyptian youth differ from yours?
5. What forms of recreation did the Egyptians enjoy?
6. By what foreign empires was Egypt conquered in ancient times?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why was it comparatively easy for one ruler to gain control of the whole of the Nile Valley?
2. You will notice as you study history that the people of many countries have had the belief that their rulers descended from gods. Why did rulers try to foster such ideas among their subjects?
3. Why did Egypt have only three seasons instead of four as we have in the United States?
4. Can you see why the Egyptians, living on a plain with a desert stretching as far as the eye could see, would build huge buildings and statues?
5. How does our calendar differ from the Egyptian calendar? In what way has it been suggested that our calendar be changed?
6. In what ways was the work of an Egyptian farmer different from the work of an American farmer today?
7. Styles of clothing are the result of the climate and the work of the people. In what ways was this shown by the styles of the Egyptians?
8. Why was the discovery of the use of metals very important to mankind?
9. Why were so many of the Egyptians very poor?

10. How might the ancient Egyptians have learned that 360 days did not make a full year?

11. Why was the flooding of the Nile so beneficial to the ancient Egyptians, when the flooding of the Mississippi River is a disaster?

12. Why is a solar calendar superior to a lunar calendar?

13. What do you consider to be the greatest defect in Egyptian civilization?

14. How do people living far from one another exchange ideas? How did ancient peoples learn from other lands?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• Book of the Dead • city-states • cliff tombs • delta • dynasty • empire • feudalism • "Gift of the Nile" • hereditary • hieroglyphics • Hyksos • Karnak • kingdom • lunar calendar • mummy • papyrus • pharaoh • polytheism • pyramid • sarcophagus • scroll • scribe • solar calendar • sphinx • third dimension •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 4200 B.C. • 3000 B.C. • 3000–2500 B.C. • 1800 B.C. • 1580–1150 B.C. • 30 B.C. •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Africa • Egypt • Egyptian Canal • Mediterranean Sea • Memphis • Nile Delta • Nile River • Red Sea • Sinai Peninsula •

4. *Can you identify these persons and deities?*

• Amon • Aton • Champollion • Cheops • Hatshepsut • Herodotus • Ikhnaton • Khufu • Menes • Osiris • Ramses II • Re • Thutmose III •

### II. History Related to Civics

1. The ancient Egyptian nobleman's son fitted himself for a government job through his education. In parallel columns, list the ways

in which his education suited his needs and the ways in which your education is preparing you for adult life.

2. List in parallel columns the responsibilities of an ancient Egyptian as a subject of his pharaoh and your responsibilities as a citizen of the United States.

3. List in parallel columns the job opportunities open to a free man in ancient Egypt and some of those open to you in your locality.

### III. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Make a clay model of one of the following to put on display in your classroom:

• pyramid • sphinx • a cliff tomb • central hall of the Temple at Karnak •

2. Using books listed at the end of this unit, an encyclopedia, or magazine material listed in the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*, prepare an oral report to the class on one of the following topics:

• Egyptian art • hieroglyphics • Egyptian agriculture • the Tomb of Tutankhamen • how Champollion deciphered hieroglyphics • Queen Hatshepsut • the Egyptian calendar • the shadoof • how Egyptian inventions aid us today • the tomb of Cheops •

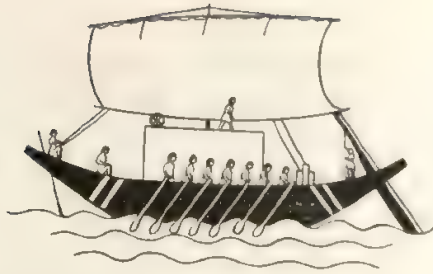
3. Trace back to hieroglyphic writing some of the letters in our alphabet.

4. Using modeling clay, make a relief map of Egypt showing the course of the Nile, the Delta, and the tributaries that flow into the Nile. With small models, show the location of the pyramids. Your map should be at least three feet long.

### IV. Picture Study

1. A double crown like that shown in the picture on page 38 signified that the pharaoh ruled both Upper and Lower Egypt. Who was the first ruler of Egypt who could have worn the double crown?





4

## Southwestern Asia Develops a High Culture

**T**he Egyptians, who had worked hard for hundreds of years before they achieved a civilized way of life, were not alone in wanting to improve their living. King Menes probably did not know it, but by the time he had united Upper and Lower Egypt into one big country along the Nile, far to the northeast, in another river valley, people were living who were about as far advanced as the Egyptians.

### MEN ACHIEVE CIVILIZATION IN THE VALLEY OF THE TWO RIVERS

The same advantages of rich soil, navigable streams, and mild climate that made it easy to live in Egypt also aided the people in southwestern Asia to develop a civilization. Their attractive homeland, known as the Fertile Crescent, was in the valley of the Tigris-Euphrates rivers, the "land of the Two Rivers."

This area was different from Egypt in other ways, however. The Tigris River to the east and the Euphrates River to the west flowed in a southerly direction, and not north, as the Nile River flowed. The Two Rivers emptied into the Persian Gulf, as you will see from the map. The supply of water from these rivers was not so certain and regular as that from the Nile. Nor did the people in these river valleys have a convenient supply of building rock such as the Egyptians had. The Egyptians could reach the great Mediterranean Sea by way of the Nile and profited from trading with people who lived around that sea. The Persian Gulf was not a good trading area for the people of the Two Rivers.

*Skillful Assyrians carved this human-headed winged bull from one block of stone which weighed 40 tons.*

Oriental Institute, University of Chicago



**“The Garden of Eden”** The “land between the rivers,” called Mesopotamia (mĕs ō pŏ tā’mĭ á) by the Greeks, was known to the Hebrews of the Old Testament as the Garden of Eden. Today this land is dreary and poor, but in ancient times it was rich and beautiful. The Greek traveler and historian Herodotus wrote that people would not believe him when he told them how tall the grain grew in that fair land.

Because of the fine living to be had in this warm, fertile valley of Mesopotamia, the peoples in the mountains to the north, near the Black Sea and the Caspian Sea, and the peoples in the Arabian desert to the southwest invaded the valley over the years and fought many wars with the inhabitants. The valley was not easily defended, especially from the north, and the invaders frequently overpowered the native people and settled down to enjoy the advantages of the culture they found there.

**Sumerians** It was probably a group called Indo-Europeans who migrated southward into the eastern end of the Fertile Crescent and started the first civilization there. The Indo-Europeans were a branch of the white race who lived in the neighborhood of the Black and Caspian seas. We call them Indo-Europeans because their descendants finally migrated from the Fertile Crescent eastward to India and westward through Europe. The Indo-Europeans who conquered the natives of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley were called Sumerians (sŭ mĕr’ĭ áns) because their capital was at Sumer in the lower part of the valley.

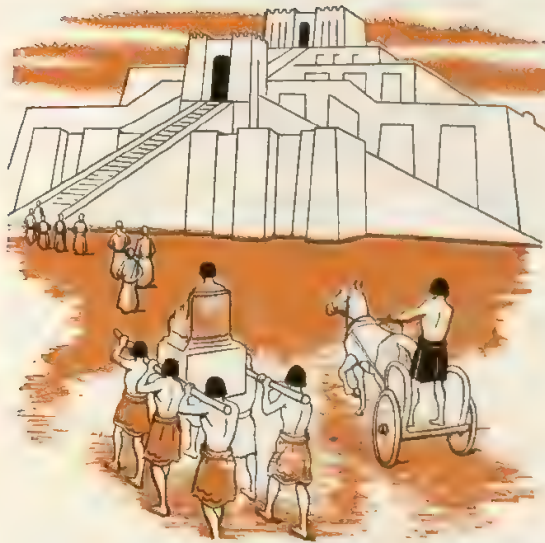
In some ways the Sumerian ways of living resembled the culture of the Egyptians at that time. The Sumerians adopted the



city-state type of government. They worshipped many gods representing the various forces of nature, and their tower-temples were masterworks of building. They constructed irrigation ditches to provide water for their agriculture. The rich soil of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley, like the fine flood soil of the Nile Valley, enabled the land of Sumer to support many people.

But the Sumerians made some important contributions to civilization that the Egyptians had not worked out. For example, their builders first used the arch, a very important step in the development of architecture. They improved the wheel, with which they built carts and chariots and without which our modern civilization would have been impossible. Hundreds of thousands of cars on the highways, long trains rolling across miles of tracks, giant airplanes cutting the skies, machinery whirling in factories everywhere; all these had their beginnings in the minds of some clever Sumerians who wanted to find a way to transport things more easily.

Every time you hear the final whistle at a football game or look at your own watch,



*The Sumerians were the earliest people to achieve civilization in the Fertile Crescent of Babylonia.*

the Sumerian past lives on for you, because the Sumerians introduced sixty as a unit for measuring time, sixty seconds in a minute, and sixty minutes in an hour. They applied sixty as a unit for measuring space, too. In your study of geometry you learn that there are three hundred and sixty degrees in a circle, a measure which came from this ancient people.

Sumerian traders developed a type of writing to keep their records that was quite different from the writing of the Egyptians. It is called cuneiform (*kū nē'ī fōrm*), meaning wedge-shaped. The scribes used a reed stylus with which they made these marks on clay tablets. These tablets were then baked. The hundreds of cuneiform records found by the archeologists are of various kinds, among them orders from the king to his governors, receipts, and royal decrees.

**Babylonians** About 2900 B.C. the able Sumerians were conquered by a Semitic tribe out of the desert. These Semites were herdsmen who drove their flocks

from oasis to oasis to get fresh pastures and water. Other Semitic peoples later occupied both Sumer and its northern neighbor, Akkad (*āk'kād*). They became known as Babylonians (*bāb ī lō'nī āns*) because their kings ruled from the ancient city of Babylon. Their greatest ruler was Hammurabi (*hām ōō rā'bē*) (about 1800 B.C.). Many of the letters and orders that Hammurabi and his secretaries wrote to his governors and officers have been dug up in the ruins of the palace. But the greatest thing Hammurabi left behind was a code of laws, which he had carved on a stone shaft eight feet high. Above the laws is a carving showing the sun god giving the laws to the king. Hammurabi's laws showed more concern for the poor than we might expect. Women had certain rights, too. But the general theory of the laws was "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth." Hammurabi's code is the oldest code of laws in the history of the world.

*The most conspicuous buildings of Babylon were the tower temples with their "blocks" of different colors.*

Oriental Institute, University of Chicago





## TRADE MAP

2



## BABYLONIAN TRADE ROUTES

**Assyrians** Another Semitic people, the Assyrians (ă sîr'îănz), finally conquered the whole Fertile Crescent and even reached over into Africa and took a large part of the dying Egyptian Empire (672 B.C.). The Assyrians were a warlike people. They had learned from the Hittites (hit'its), who lived north of the Fertile Crescent, how to use iron to make weapons which were more deadly than the copper or bronze weapons had been. Their plans for battle were carefully laid before they attacked. A part of the army rode into battle in chariots. They were followed by horsemen and infantrymen carrying spears and arrows with iron points. For attacking walled cities they invented the battering ram tipped with iron. This could easily batter down the brick fortifications surrounding a city. Assyrian kings boasted of their cruelty and their armies spread terror wherever they went.

Assur, from which the Assyrians took their name, was made their first capital because it was conveniently located on the Tigris River. Later, their great king Sen-

nacherib (sĕn năk'ēr ĩb) moved the capital up the river to Nineveh (nĭn'ĕ vēh).

No city that the world had yet seen could compare with Nineveh in grandeur and strength. The palaces were luxurious, with huge alabaster statues, glazed brick walls, and brilliant colors everywhere. The kings decorated the interiors of their palaces with gigantic pictures telling of their power. The city was surrounded by two walls eight miles long, a hundred feet high, and fifty feet in thickness. It had other attractions, too. A good water supply, heretofore lacking in ancient cities, was another achievement of the Assyrian kings. A system of aqueducts was built to bring water to the city from a large reservoir, fed by mountain streams of pure water.

When archeologists dug into the ruins of Nineveh, they unearthed in the king's palace a priceless library of 30,000 clay tablets. Most of these tablets are about the size of an ordinary textbook, but some are much smaller. There are "books" of hymns, prayers, medicine, letters, grammar, and statements of the superstitions of the people.



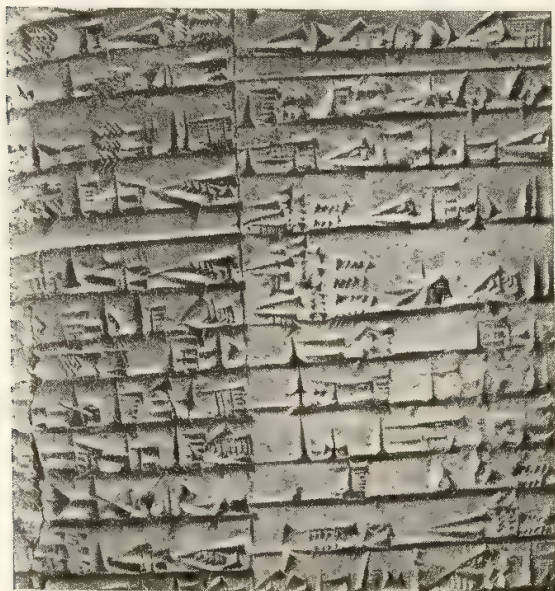
*When the Assyrians fell, a Hebrew prophet wrote: "All that hear of thy fate smite their hands in rejoicing."*

By means of these tablets, modern historians have been able to read the thoughts of the ancient Assyrians.

The Assyrian Empire was the first to demonstrate to the world that with the aid of horses and iron weapons, one people could rule a far-flung territory and so create an empire. An empire relying to so great an

*Each stroke of cuneiform writing was wedge shaped. Combinations of strokes stood for different sounds.*

University Museum, Philadelphia



extent upon its military achievements, and treating conquered peoples as ruthlessly as the Assyrians did, could not last long, however. After about two hundred years, the Chaldeans (kāl dē'āns) in the south joined with the Medes (mēds) in the north to overthrow this vast military machine. The great city of Nineveh was besieged and its walls destroyed in 612 B.C. The cruel and haughty conquerors fell, but they left to their conquerors the efficient means they had invented for the destruction of other peoples.

**Chaldeans** With the destruction of Nineveh by the Chaldeans, their able King Nebuchadnezzar (nēb ū kād nēz'ēr) re-established Babylon as his capital. He rebuilt the old city with splendid temples and palaces, and he surrounded it with an enormous wall so wide that four-horse chariots could be turned around on top of it. The hanging gardens of his magnificent palace were called by the Greeks one of the Seven Wonders of the ancient world. They were built on tiers of high platforms planted with masses of shrubs, beautiful flowers, and vines. It is said that these hanging gardens were Nebuchadnezzar's gift to his Median wife, who missed her native hills.

Nebuchadnezzar waged fierce wars. In one of these he captured Jerusalem and destroyed the city. The inhabitants foolishly trusted in the Egyptians for help, but Egypt was too weak even to defend herself, and so the capital of the Jews was destroyed and the inhabitants were made slaves in Babylon.

The Chaldeans maintained schools for boys in their capital city. In the court of the school the pupils dug up clay to make the tablets on which they practiced the diffi-

cult cuneiform characters. Besides writing, they were taught reading, spelling, map-making, astrology, and religious beliefs. Physical education was not neglected either, and out-of-door exercises were encouraged. As early as 3,000 B.C. Babylon became a famous world market. Even though the city fell to many different rulers, it remained famous as a great trading center. Caravans brought spices and myrrh from Arabia, timber from the Lebanon Mountains, and ivory, spices, jewels, and silk from India. At booths covered with brightly covered awnings, men bargained to sell their wares to the passing crowds. Babylonian craftsmen also set up booths to sell the products of their skill, carpets, silver, gold, and ivory ornaments and articles of glass, bronze, and brass. Scribes sat about, ready to write letters on clay tablets for those who needed their services. Money-changers had their scales on hand for weighing the gold and silver pieces for those who made purchases. Babylon was a busy city, noisy with the chatter of many languages and gay with the costumes from many lands.

Many "American" vegetables originated in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley: peas, spinach, and beets, for example.



Even though the Chaldeans were a strong and vigorous people, their empire lasted less than a century. Their subjects resented the despotic rule of their masters. Powerful eastern neighbors made repeated attacks on them, and eventually (539 B.C.) the Medes and the Persians succeeded in overrunning the lands of the Chaldeans.

**Architecture** The religions of the different people who lived in Mesopotamia affected their architecture. The early Sumerians had believed that their gods dwelt on the mountain tops. When they moved into the plains, they did not wish to leave their gods behind, so they built temple towers in which these gods might dwell. The Assyrians and Chaldeans copied these, and the great temples of the new Babylon were made in the forms of towers.

The houses in the city of Babylon were built of clay brick, around a court, in the center of which was a well. Shrubs added to the attractive setting for home life. The rooms of the house were decorated with wall paintings. The floors were covered with mats or rugs and furnished with cushions, a few chairs, and tables. Vases of pottery or bronze were used to hold wine and water or simply for decoration.

1. In the valley of what two rivers in southwestern Asia did civilization early develop? How did that area compare with the Nile Valley?
2. What is meant by the term Mesopotamia?
3. What two branches of the white race conquered the valley of the Two Rivers at one time or another?
4. Point out some contributions the Sumerians made to your civilization.
5. Why were the Sumerians, Babylonians, and Assyrians known by these names?



6. Name one great king of the Babylonians, one of the Assyrians, and one of the Chaldeans. For what was each famous?
7. For what achievements were the Assyrians best known?
8. What peoples destroyed the Chaldean Empire?

## HEBREWS AND PHOENICIANS SETTLE ON THE EASTERN SHORES OF THE MEDITERRANEAN

**Hebrews** Other ancient Semitic tribes living in Mesopotamia were the Hebrews, who were eager to leave that land. They also had a growing population, and the increasing size of their herds was making it difficult to find suitable grazing lands. Gradually, groups of Hebrews migrated westward. Finally, about the year 2000 B.C., one of the Hebrew patriarchs, Abraham, led his tribe from the neighborhood of the important city of Ur to a less thickly settled land on the shore of the Mediterranean.

The new home of the Hebrews became known as Palestine. It was at the southwestern end of the famous Fertile Crescent.

*In the tiny country of Palestine two great spiritual movements began, Judaism and Christianity.*



Bettmann Archive

*This is an artist's conception of Moses holding the tablets of law. He is wearing a tallith, or prayer shawl.*

The fertile strip was from ten to thirty miles in width. The land was mountainous, sloping down to a coastal plain on the west and to narrower valleys leading to the Jordan River and the Dead Sea on the east. North of Palestine lay Phoenicia (fē nīsh' iā), which we know today as Syria. Here were the Lebanon Mountains from which the Hebrews imported valuable cedar logs for building purposes. Palestine and Phoenicia together formed a sort of land bridge between the two early centers of civilization, Egypt and Mesopotamia. This Mediterranean coastal region gradually developed into an important center of civilization.

The Hebrews differed from the neighboring peoples in one important respect. Through the centuries they had come to believe that the many gods of nature were false gods and that there was only one God, whom they called Yahweh (yā'wē). Their loyalty to God ran through all their history and set them apart from other people of their day.

About the thirteenth century B.C. a period of drought settled upon the land of Palestine. One of the Hebrews, who had become an important officer in the government of Egypt, invited his people to migrate to the northern part of Egypt where they would find sufficient food and a favorable climate. But gradually the Pharaoh of Egypt reduced the Hebrews to slavery. The Book of Exodus in the Old Testament tells of a Hebrew leader named Moses who was determined to lead his people out of this bondage. He gave up his honored position in the Egyptian royal household to guide his own people to freedom in the Canaan (kā'nān) area of Palestine.

At last the Hebrews became a united people under their first king, Saul, who laid the foundation for the nation. David, the next important ruler (1000-955 B.C.), captured Jerusalem from the Canaanites and made it his capital. Then he proceeded to extend the boundaries of his country by

other conquests. David secured an outlet to the Red Sea on the south and captured the last important cities held by the Philistines (fil'is tēnz) in western Canaan. Knowing that peaceful activities make a country prosperous, David encouraged commerce with the neighboring lands.

David's son, Solomon (söl'ō mōn), succeeded him. By this time the Hebrew kingdom had grown strong and prosperous. The new ruler gave up the simple ways of Saul and David. The ambitious Solomon built a magnificent palace for himself and a huge temple. These and other building projects cost enormous sums of money, for which Solomon had to tax his subjects heavily and through which he lost their good will. While Solomon lived, he was able to hold his people together, but at his death the northern part of the kingdom, Israel (iz'rā ēl), rebelled and set up a separate kingdom. The southern kingdom was called Judah. Solomon left behind one thing





Culter Service

*Jerusalem was destroyed by the Syrians about 168 B.C. Under a Hebrew patriot, Judas Maccabaeus, it was recaptured. An imaginative artist shows the Hebrews building the altar of the temple.*

of importance to the Hebrews. The temple which he had built at Jerusalem, in the southern kingdom, remained a symbol of their religion and their unity.

The division of the Hebrews into the two kingdoms of Israel and Judah made their defense difficult. When they became involved in wars, they were further weakened. The Assyrians found it easy to conquer Israel in the north; and a few years later (586 B.C.) Nebuchadnezzar conquered the rest of Palestine and exiled most of the Hebrews.

The Jews did not carry on trade by sea to the extent that their Phoenician neighbors did, nor did they become great builders. They gave to the world, however, the idea of one supreme God, or *monotheism* (mōn'-ō thē izm).

Another contribution of the Hebrews to our civilization is a series of literary and historical works which have been brought together, with later writings, in a book

called the Bible. This is really a library of books written by a number of men. The thirty-nine books of the Old Testament are the part of our Bible that the Hebrews gave to the world. In addition to being great literature, these books give us a history of the Hebrew people and are the source of inspiration and guidance for members of the Hebrew and Christian religions.

The Hebrews believed that God had a universal moral law for all the world. There were standards of right and wrong which God expected all men to obey. They thought that God spoke to them through *prophets*, who warned them to turn from their evil ways and to obey God's will. Those ideas of the Hebrews did much to raise the moral standards of individuals and communities, and they continue to influence the world today.

**Phoenicians** Just north of Palestine lies a narrow strip of land along



the coast, backed by the Lebanon Mountains. Here the Phoenician cities of Tyre (tīr) and Sidon (sī'd'n) developed. Since their land was rocky and the mountains prevented easy expansion inland, the Phoenicians turned to the sea and trading to make a living. The Lebanon Mountains furnished a bountiful supply of cedarwood for shipbuilding.

For several centuries after 1000 B.C. the venturesome Phoenician seamen not only sailed the Red Sea but went to the westernmost parts of the Mediterranean and even pushed out to the Atlantic, sailing along the shores to the north until they reached Britain. Their caravans traded inland, too, with the peoples of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. They established colonies in the Mediterranean, the greatest of which was Carthage in North Africa.

Their ships and caravans carried to distant places the goods which the Phoenicians manufactured: pottery, glass, beautifully colored and embroidered cloth, and purple dye. This dye was in such great demand by kings that it came to be called "royal purple," though it was also called Tyrian purple because the city of Tyre was the chief center of its manufacture.

*The first alphabet had 22 signs, or letters, all of which stood for consonants. The Greeks added vowels.*

Phoenician	Greek	Roman	English
𐤀	Α	A	A
𐤁	Β	B	B
𐤂	Γ	Γ	Γ
𐤃	Δ	Δ	Δ
𐤄	Ε	Ε	Ε
𐤅	Ζ	Ζ	Ζ
𐤆	Η	Η	Η
𐤇	Θ	Θ	Θ

On their return trips, the Phoenician merchants brought tin from Britain, silver from Spain, ivory, ebony, ostrich feathers, hides, and gold from North Africa, spices and swords from Arabia, and horses from Armenia.

The Phoenician merchants did more than traffic in merchandise. Their business methods were introduced into the western Mediterranean world. They improved the old systems of writing, reducing the number of symbols to twenty-two. Thus they laid the foundation for the modern alphabet. They introduced this new system of writing to the Greeks, who at first were afraid of the meaning of the curious little marks. The Greeks finally adopted them, however, and took the new, simplified alphabet into Europe. The alphabet, together with the fine products that the Phoenicians carried with them wherever they traded, had a civilizing influence upon the peoples with whom they came in contact. For this reason the Phoenicians have been called the "missionaries of civilization."

1. Why did the Hebrews leave Mesopotamia?
2. Locate Palestine with reference to Egypt and Mesopotamia.
3. What important experience of the Hebrews is related in the Book of Exodus of the Old Testament?
4. Name three early kings of the Hebrew nation and tell for what each was important.
5. Point out three important ideas which the Hebrews gave to the world.
6. What is the name of the Jewish nation today?
7. What was the duty of the prophets?
8. What was the principal occupation of the Phoenicians?
9. What Phoenician contributions to culture do we enjoy today?



## THE AEGEAN WORLD LEARNS FROM EGYPT AND MESOPOTAMIA

**The Cretans** On the accompanying map of the eastern Mediterranean you will see that the Aegean (ē-jē'ān) Sea is cut off from the Mediterranean Sea by the long, slender island of Crete. In the Aegean Sea are numerous islands that served as "stepping stones" for traders going from Asia Minor to Greece. It was natural, then, that around the Aegean Sea there developed early centers of civilization.

The first people to live on Crete and its neighboring islands probably migrated there about 8000 B.C. At that time they had already reached the neolithic stage of cultural progress. They later began trading with Egypt, selling the Egyptians wines, oil, and purple dyes. Their contact with the Egyptians greatly influenced their culture. The Cretans also became such skilled seamen that they were referred to as the "sea kings of Crete."

From the ruins of Cretan cities, especially in the palace of Cnossus (nös'ūs), archeologists have discovered that the Cretan civilization flourished between 2000 and 1400

B.C. But as early as the time when Menes was ruling Egypt, the people of Crete had begun to use bronze. They became clever workers in this metal, and made fine swords and daggers. In fact, some scholars believe that bronze was first used by the Cretans. Their delicate pottery jars, which they painted with beautiful colors and designs, were held in high favor throughout the eastern Mediterranean world. The Cretans displayed artistic originality, using more brilliant colors and more graceful lines than the Egyptians.

On the mainland of the peninsula of Greece, the Cretan traders planted trading stations. Two of these grew into the cities of Mycenae (mī-sē'nē) and Tiryns (tī-rīnz). Today only the ruins of these cities remain, but these ruins give evidence of once fine buildings equipped with such "modern" facilities as copper drainage

*Three thousand years ago, talented artists of Crete were creating such beautiful figures as this one of their Snake Goddess.*

Boston Museum of Fine Arts



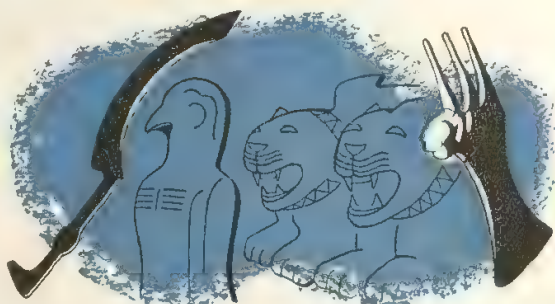
pipes and bathrooms and with beautiful stairways and artistically painted walls.

The island position of the Cretan cities provided security, but Mycenae and Tiryns, on the mainland of Greece (see your map), found it necessary to surround themselves with fortress-like walls. Like their Cretan relatives, these two cities existed on a flourishing trade. Their ships visited all the lands bordering on the eastern Mediterranean Sea, and they imported articles from northern Europe and even distant China.

In the fourteenth century B.C. the economic supremacy of the Cretans in the Aegean area was broken when tribes of people from the Greek peninsula attacked and ravaged the island of Crete. The Cretans had put too much trust in their island position and had not provided adequate defenses against such mass invasions.

**The Trojans** Across the Aegean Sea in Asia Minor was the city of Troy. Several different cities were built on this same location in the course of the centuries. Excavations in the 1870's by the famous German archeologist Heinrich (hĭn'rik) Schliemann (shlĕ'măn) showed that nine cities rose and fell on the same site. The one in which the world is most interested is the seventh city. It was built in the sixteenth century B.C. Little is known of the civilization that developed there, but the treasures of gold jewelry, the relics of costly ornamentation of the palace, and other evidences unearthed by Schliemann indicate that the Trojans had a source of great wealth. Since Troy did not have a good port, and since the plain about the city was not fruitful, the Trojans must have made their living by collecting tolls from the ships that went through the Hellespont connecting the Aegean Sea with the Sea of Mar-

mora and the Black Sea. That must have been very annoying to the Greek traders, and Greece finally waged war on Troy. The famous Greek poet, Homer, recalled the heroic siege of Troy by the Greeks in his epic poem, the *Iliad* (ĭ'lĭ'ăd).



*The Hittites ushered in the Iron Age. That we are still living in that age is evident all about you.*

#### THE HITTITES OF ASIA MINOR ARE THE FIRST TO USE IRON

One group of barbaric Indo-Europeans moved into Asia Minor about 2500 B.C. They conquered the tribes there, from whom they learned many skills, and developed the first Hittite Empire, which flourished about 2000 B.C. This first empire fell, but about 1500 B.C. the second Hittite Empire arose. It was composed of many small states held together by a strong and efficient army. For a long time it was powerful enough to be a serious threat to the Egyptians. Ramses II of Egypt married a daughter of the Hittite king in order to cement relations between the two empires and prevent the Hittites from attacking Egypt.

The Hittites had systems of writing which show the influence of both the cuneiform writing of Mesopotamia and the hieroglyphic of Egypt. They also had an intelligent code of laws. They were skillful in working with stone.



The Hittites were traders and farmers, but their chief contribution to the world was their knowledge of the practical uses of iron. There are iron mines in northern Asia Minor. The Hittites worked these and taught other peoples how to make use of this important metal. So they introduced to the world the Iron Age in which we are still living.

About 1200 B.C. strong tribes from Europe came into Asia Minor and overwhelmed the Hittites. As an independent people, their history came to an end.

1. Locate the island of Crete.
2. In what respects did the Cretans borrow their culture and in what respects were they original?
3. Name the chief Cretan city?
4. Who destroyed the Cretan civilization?
5. Where was the city of Troy located?
6. What was the source of Troy's prosperity?
7. Who wrote the *Iliad*? What does it describe?
8. At the time of the first Hittite Empire, what was going on in Egypt? At the beginning of the Second Empire, who was ruling in Egypt?
9. What action on the part of Ramses of Egypt showed the power of the Hittites?
10. What contribution did the Hittites make to your world?

## PERSIA RULES THE ANCIENT ORIENT

Occasionally in history a great nation or empire arises whose chief contribution to man's progress is the unifying and spreading of present cultures rather than adding much that is new. Such was Persia.

The Persians came from the rich grasslands around the Caspian and Black seas. When they migrated southward they

settled on a plateau north of the Persian Gulf, which they called Iran. This ancient country is very important to us today because of its rich deposits of oil, but the ancient Persians knew nothing of that.

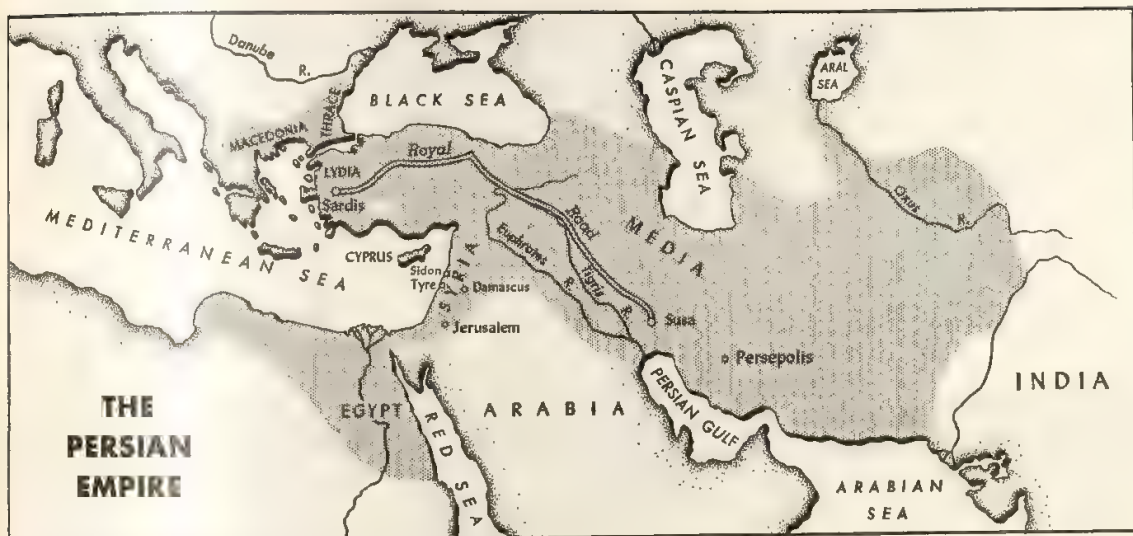
**Cyrus** About 550 B.C. Cyrus (si'rūs), a great leader, arose among the Persians. His first achievement was the uniting of all the Persian tribes under his rule. In 538 B.C. he proudly changed the name of Iran to Persia. When Cyrus gained control of Media, a neighboring country, the rest of his neighbors became afraid of his power. To the northwest, Lydia, a country that had arisen on the ruins of the old Hittite Empire, tried to form an alliance against Cyrus. Egypt and Chaldea refused to join, so all three countries were doomed.

Lydia fell first. She was famed for her wealth, and her King Croesus (krē'sūs) was considered to be the richest man in the world. The Lydians are believed to have invented the coinage of money so that goods could be exchanged more easily than by bartering. The Persians adopted this system of money for the whole empire.

After conquering Lydia, Cyrus overran Chaldea. Cyrus succeeded in taking his enemies one at a time and conquering all of them.

*Persian educational aims for their youth were "to ride, to shoot with the bow, and to speak the truth."*





*The Persian Empire, under Darius, was the largest the world had ever known up to his time. But Persia was never able to conquer the Greeks, although they tried to do so a few years after Darius died.*

After his son and successor, Cambyses (kām bī'sēz), added Egypt to the empire in 525 B.C., the Persian dominions extended from the Indus River westward, through Egypt, and even to the Peninsula of Thrace in Europe. The whole ancient Orient was now under the rule of one man.

As successful as Cyrus had been as a conqueror, he was a statesman, too. He treated the conquered nations with more consideration than any conqueror had ever done before him. For this reason he was one of the great heroes of Ancient Times. The Jews praised him, for he set them free and let them return to Jerusalem and rebuild the city and their beloved temple.

**Darius the Great** It fell to a later ruler to complete the work of Cyrus. This was Darius (dā rī'ūs) the Great (521-485 B.C.). The most pressing problem the Great King had to face was keeping all parts of his empire loyal. It was too large for one man to rule. Darius was a good organizer, however, and succeeded in setting up an efficient government. He

divided all his lands, except Egypt and Mesopotamia which he ruled personally, into twenty provinces. Over each he placed a governor. Because Darius could not be sure of the loyalty of the governors, he sent out men from his capital at Susa to spy upon them and report to him any acts of disloyalty they might discover. These men were called the "king's eyes and the king's ears."

Although the imperial administration of Cyrus bound the empire into a strong union, it allowed the princes much freedom in language, religion, and trade.

Darius demonstrated his wisdom and statesmanship in many other steps he took. He built a navy and manned it with skillful Phoenician sailors. He redug the old Egyptian canal so that his fleet could sail from the Mediterranean into the Red Sea and thus more easily protect the long coastline. He had postal roads built and a postal system established so that armies and messengers could be transported quickly from place to place. The Royal Road connected the capital city of Susa with Sardis in Asia



Oriental Institute, University of Chicago

*When Persepolis, the capital of Persia, was unearthed by archeologists, the beauty of this sculptured stairway leading to the royal audience hall of the palace was revealed. Note the carvings in the stone.*

Minor. Riders, changing horses frequently, could travel the 1,600 miles in eight days. By all these means Darius was able to hold together the largest empire the world had yet seen.

**Zoroastrianism** The religious teacher of the Persians was Zoroaster (zō-rō ās'tēr), who taught that there was a god of good and a god of evil. The good spirit, with his helpers, or angels, dwelt in the east where the dawn arose and the evil spirits in the west where the sun seemed to disappear. Ahura-Mazda (ä'hōō rā mǎz'da), the source of all goodness and light, was unceasingly waging war against the leader of the forces of evil and darkness. The followers of Zoroaster were called upon to demonstrate their high ideals by noble acts. Thus Zoroastrianism (zō rō ās'trī ān-izm) was a nobler religion than many that the world had known before. Cyrus and Darius spread this religion through the empire.

## **PERSIA, TOO, FALLS TO STRONGER POWER**

Although Darius was generally pleased with his empire and preferred to make it strong rather than add to it, he could not resist attacking the Greek cities lying along the border of Asia Minor. The Greeks were not numerous, but they were courageous and loyal to their cities. Darius was defeated by them, and so was his successor, Xerxes (zûrk'sēz). This so weakened the Persians that they never recovered their former power. Finally, another world conqueror, Alexander the Great, succeeded in taking over the whole empire in the fourth century B.C.

The largest of all the oriental empires had fallen. The Sumerians, Babylonians, Assyrians, and Chaldeans had, in turn, ruled empires centering in Mesopotamia. At the western end of the Fertile Crescent the Hebrews and Phoenician civilizations had



flourished. The Cretans, Trojans, and Hittites had lived around the Aegean Sea. Persia had been heir to all their cultures. Now her empire, too, had fallen.

The people living around the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea now looked backward upon a glorious past instead of forward to a still more glorious future. The world had to turn westward, to Europe, for culture and progress. It was the Greeks who were to take the learning of Egypt and Asia and establish civilized ways of living in southeastern Europe.

1. What was the chief importance of the Persian Empire?
2. Name three rulers of the Persian Empire and tell what made each important.
3. Locate Persia, Lydia.
4. What very useful invention did the Lydians make for civilization?
5. To what does the name Iran refer?
6. Who was Zoroaster?
7. What people caused the downfall of the Persian Empire? What two Persian emperors were defeated by them?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In all ancient countries, just as in the United States today, the family played an important part. What was the importance of the family in passing on customs and knowledge from generation to generation? Is that an important function of the family today?

2. The peoples who conquered the Fertile Crescent did so chiefly because it was better land than that which they occupied. Is there still a struggle in the world to get the best land? Have the nations in modern times always looked for fertile soil in the territory they try to take, or are other resources counted more important?

3. Why do people living as nomads on deserts usually have great interest in the study of the heavens?

4. Why were the contributions of the Hebrews of greater importance to mankind than those of the Assyrians?

5. Because there was no money in the days before the Lydians invented coinage, trade was usually carried on by barter. What are the handicaps of such trade? Is barter ever used today in trade between peoples?

6. To what has the name of the country of Persia recently been changed? Can you suggest why the Persians wished to have this done?



*A system of roads, over which riders hastened with messages of importance, held the Persian Empire together.*

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

- "an eye for an eye and a tooth for a tooth"
- aqueduct • archeologist • astrology
- astronomy • battering ram • clay tablets
- code of laws • cuneiform
- Indo-Europeans • "king's eyes and ears"
- "missionaries of civilization" • monotheism
- Old Testament • plateau • prophet
- Philistines • "rich as Croesus" • "sea kings of Crete"
- Semites • "Two Rivers"

Tyrian purple • Zoroastrianism •

2. *Do you know your dates? If so, you can tell in what five-hundred-year-period listed in the left column, each item in the right-hand column belongs.*

3500–3000 B.C. Cretan civilization flourished

3000–2500 B.C. Sumerian civilization flourished

2500–2000 B.C. Cyrus founded Persia

2000–1500 B.C. Hammurabi's code

1500–1000 B.C. Assyrian Empire flourished

1000–500 B.C. Darius was defeated by the Greeks

500 B.C.–Birth of Christ Solomon's temple was built

Menes ruled Egypt

Alexander the Great conquered the Ancient Orient

Phoenician seamen dominated the eastern Mediterranean Sea

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Aegean Sea • Arabia • Asia Minor • Assyria • Babylon • Babylonia • Black Sea • Canaan • Caspian Sea • Chaldea • Cnossus • Crete • Dead Sea • Euphrates River • Fertile Crescent • Greece • Hittite Empire • Israel • Jerusalem • Jordan River • Judah • Lebanon Mountains • Lydia • Media • Mesopotamia • Mt. Sinai • Mycenae • Nineveh • Palestine • Persia • Persian Gulf • Phoenicia • Sardis • Sumeria • Susa • Tigris River • Tiryns • Troy •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Abraham • Alexander the Great • Cambyses II • Croesus • Cyrus • Darius the Great • David • Hammurabi • Homer • Moses • Nebuchadnezzar • Saul • Schliemann, Dr. Heinrich • Sennacherib • Solomon • Xerxes • Zoroaster •

## II. History Related to Civics

1. Because the Phoenicians carried their products, the alphabet, and their ways of doing business to various places around the Mediterranean Sea, they were called "missionaries of civilization." List the ideas, products, and ideals of the United States that you would be proud to have taken to other people. Compare your lists in class.

2. Several rulers of whom you have read in this chapter made reforms that benefited the people of their countries. What were they? List reforms that you would like to see put into effect in your community. Discuss in class desirable means by which those reforms might be put into effect.

## III. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Give a talk to the class on one of the following topics:

• the Temple of Solomon • the Phoenician alphabet • the Palace of Cnossus • the Hebrew religion • Zoroastrianism • how Sir Henry Rawlinson deciphered Persian writing • what Dr. Schliemann found at Troy • Cyrus the Great • Darius the Great • the story of the Trojan Horse • the travels of Odysseus • one of the Hebrew prophets: Amos, Isaiah, or Jeremiah •

2. Some of the finest literature of all times is found in the Old Testament. Memorize one of the following Psalms or songs and recite it for the class: 1, 19, 23, 95, 100, or 150.

## IV. Picture Study

1. Why did the people of the Tigris-Euphrates Valley surround their cities with walls, as shown on page 44, while the Egyptians did not?

2. In the picture on page 46 find the characters that are alike and therefore repeat the same idea.



## China and India Flourish

The name China brings to mind a land of silkworms, dragons, and water buffalo; of fans, paper lanterns, and jade; the land of the Great Chinese Wall, of millions of tiny junks plying up and down the rivers, of people eating rice with chopsticks, of beautiful empresses, and emperors sitting stiffly in their long gowns. China stirs the imagination, because it is so colorful and so different from Western countries.

### CHINA IS AN ANCIENT LAND

#### Geography of China

China was so far away from Egypt and the Fertile Crescent that its people developed their culture independently of those civilizations. It was therefore a different culture. Located along the east coast of Asia, China was cut off from the west by the high natural barriers of the plateaus of Tibet and Mongolia and by jungles on the south. Barbarians on the south and north of their country prevented the Chinese people from carrying on much trade with distant peoples.

The Chinese faced the east, because they lived in the broad valleys of two rivers that flowed in an easterly direction. The Yellow River in the north wandered through the broad plain, changing its course at will. The Yangtze (yǎng'[t]sě), which means Son of the Ocean, flowed eastward out of

the heart of China. In a land of poor roads, the rivers played an important part. The deep, fertile soil and the temperate climate made those valleys an ideal place for living a settled and prosperous life.

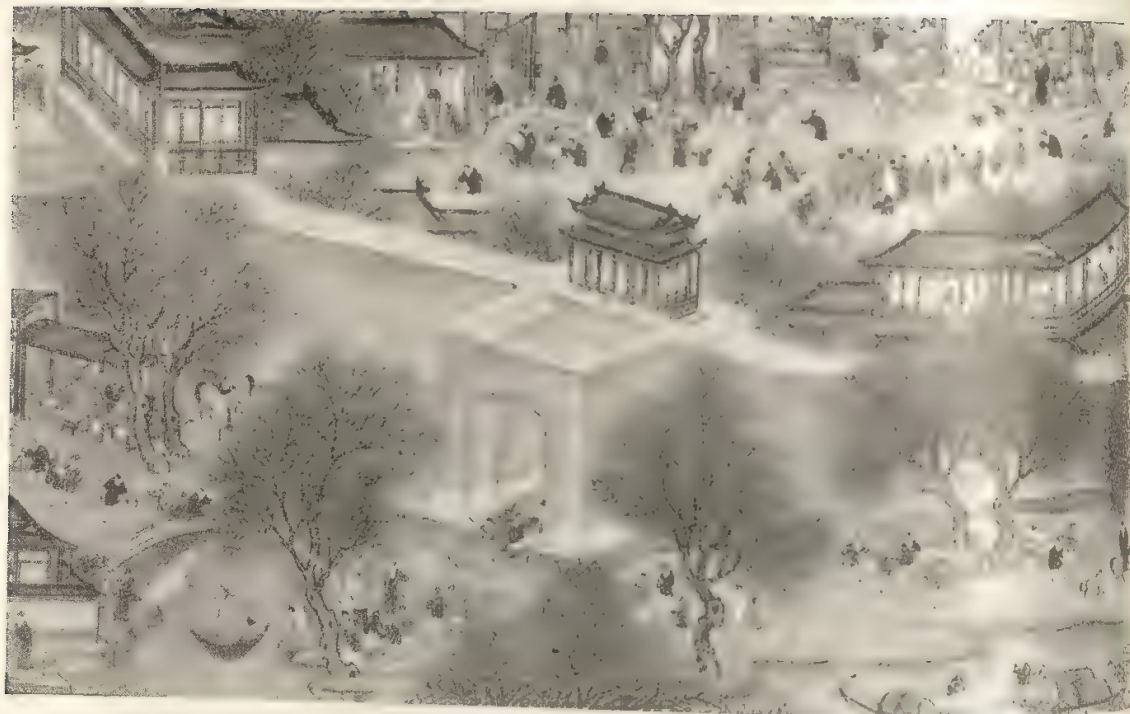
Like the story of the Valley of the Two Rivers in Mesopotamia, the history of early China is the story of a series of invasions by the tribesmen from the neighboring plateaus.

#### Early Progress

The early history of China is chiefly legendary. It is not until we come to the twelfth century B.C. that we have any definite knowledge about it. However, by that time the Chinese people, *Chinese caravans, carrying the precious "cloth of kings," traveled over the Silk Route to sell to Persian traders.*







Metropolitan Museum of Art

*Chinese artists painted delicate designs on silk, in beautiful colors. Notice the activities pictured in this festival scene: a food shop (center left), a meat shop (upper left), fishing (lower right).*

ple already had many cultural achievements to their credit. They had domesticated the horse and other animals. They had learned how to raise silkworms, to weave silk and linen, and to dye the cloth. They knew how to make baskets. They had utensils and ornaments of lead, copper, and gold. Early in their history the Chinese developed a written language. Boys expecting to become government officials were educated in schools set up for that purpose.

The Chinese religion encouraged the worship of one supreme God, Shangti (shāng'-tē). Spirits of the earth and heavenly bodies were worshipped, too. Much of their worship took the form of dancing to music. For this purpose the Chinese invented eight musical instruments. These included drums, cymbals, bells, and stringed instruments.

The Chinese did not, however, concen-

trate on thinking of life after death. They were much more interested in learning how to live a prosperous, happy, and full life in this world. For this reason they stressed the importance of education. Philosophers and scholars were more important to them than their religious leaders.

**Government** At least two dynasties had ruled China before the Chou Dynasty took control in the middle of the twelfth century B.C. Certain public offices had already been created for dealing with China's problems. There were secretaries in charge of education, agriculture, religion, justice, communication, and public works. China proper was not large. It was ruled by an emperor, but he divided the surrounding areas among a number of dukes and princes. In return, they attempted to pro-

tect China proper against the neighboring barbarians. Because the dukes were constantly prepared for war, they became practically independent. The emperor held the title Son of Heaven and had great honor shown to him, but he had little power. The various states warred among themselves. The strong conquered the weak, until the number of states was reduced from fifteen hundred to fifty-two.

## CHINESE CULTURE DURING THE CHOU DYNASTY

The Chou Dynasty (1000–256 B.C.) was probably the most important in all China's history. It was during that time that Chinese institutions took shape and improvements in culture were numerous. The rich loam of the land made farming the chief occupation. The soil was so important to them that the Chinese were called the "children of the yellow earth." But the masses of the people did not get the benefits they should have from the land, for all of it belonged to the state and was ruled by lords. The peasants worked the small plots of land assigned to them, but the lords received most of the crops. Heavy taxes were levied on the people, making it difficult for them to accumulate wealth.

**Industry** In the towns, industry and commerce grew and a very modern institution was created. The workers in each craft formed organizations called *guilds*, the earliest type of labor union. The guilds of goldsmiths, butchers, bakers, and other craftsmen regulated the quality of their work and the admission of new workers to the craft. Metal workers made kitchen utensils of iron and bronze. Earthenware dishes, bamboo articles, and ornaments

came from the hands of other craftsmen. Furriers, leatherworkers, and tailors were busy fashioning clothes. Butchers bought the swine and poultry that farmers drove to market. Storekeepers kept plenty of rice in stock for the townsmen.

**Writing** How far back Chinese writing goes is not known. But very early the Chinese developed a complicated system made up of a combination of pictures and phonetic, or sound, symbols. There were so many of these that to read and write was very difficult; it took years simply to master the symbols of writing. Since there was almost no communication between China and distant countries, the Chinese did not learn about the simple alphabet spread by the Phoenicians and they continued to use their own complicated system. It is no wonder that the Chinese respected scholars as the highest type of citizen.

While all who would learn to read or write had to master the same complicated symbols, the *spoken* language was broken into a hundred dialects so different from one another that a Chinaman from one province could not understand a Chinaman from another.

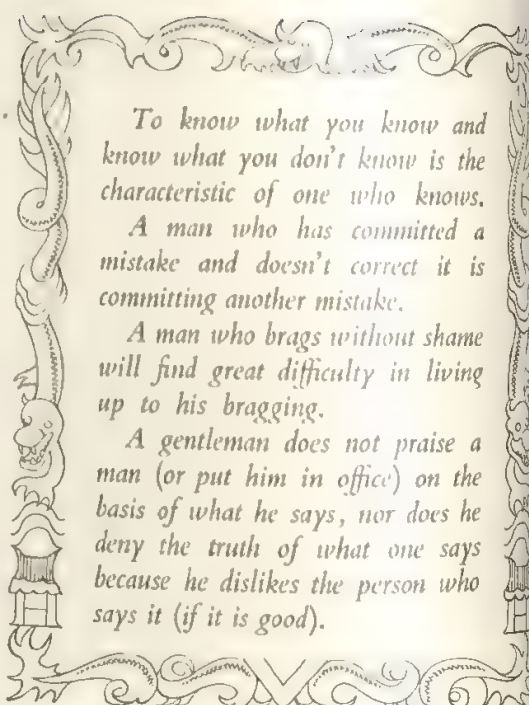


*The teaching of Confucius helped to weld the Chinese people into a vast, solid unit which lasted for centuries.*

**Religion** In religion the Chinese went through many stages of progress. At

one time or another they offered human sacrifices, believed in magic, and worshipped many gods of nature. By the eighth century B.C., monotheism was well established. Lao-Tse (lou'dzü), a writer of the sixth century B.C., tried to bring his fellowmen into closer relation with the Creator of the universe. That Eternal Spirit he called Tao (tou). Taoism taught that people could learn to know Tao better by prayer and quiet thought than by labor and study. Happiness would be found by living simply and nobly, so people should keep their material desires to a very few.

China's greatest teacher was Confucius (k'ön fū'shüs), who lived about 551-478 B.C. He could trace his ancestry back through generations of aristocrats. Appointed to a government office by one of the dukes, Confucius at once started many reforms. The duke did not look with favor on most of these reforms, however, and Confucius resigned. He then gathered together the history, legends, and poetry of China into a kind of encyclopedia of literature. This is the great classic in Chinese literature. Confucius' own writings stress good manners and respect for one's ancestors. His philosophy was conservative and taught that sons should not make changes after the deaths of their fathers, but should live as their forefathers had lived. Nevertheless, Confucius taught many fine moral principles. Although he believed in one Supreme Being, he never stressed man's relationship to God. Therefore, Confucianism was not so much a religion as it was a code of morality and conduct. Confucius' teachings came to be regarded almost as sacred writings and they have had a profound influence upon the Chinese character. Confucius died at the age of 73. These are some of his wise sayings:



*To know what you know and know what you don't know is the characteristic of one who knows.*

*A man who has committed a mistake and doesn't correct it is committing another mistake.*

*A man who brags without shame will find great difficulty in living up to his bragging.*

*A gentleman does not praise a man (or put him in office) on the basis of what he says, nor does he deny the truth of what one says because he dislikes the person who says it (if it is good).*

**Home Life** By the end of the Chou Dynasty a great gap had developed between the nobility and the peasants of China. The nobles followed strictly a set of manners that were difficult to learn. Their way of greeting people, their method of eating, and their dress were all regulated by a strict code. They tried in this way to make life formal but gracious. Their homes were as fine as their manners. Around the houses were beautiful gardens and courtyards. Inside floors were usually of tile, covered with mats made of rushes, grass, or bamboo splints. There were few chairs, for people sat on the floor or reclined on couches provided with hard pillows. The rooms were heated by small, charcoal-burning stoves. Food was served in dishes of bamboo, bronze, or earthenware and eaten with chopsticks of wood or ivory. All in all, the noblemen of early China enjoyed many of the comforts of a civilized way of life.





Monkmeyer

*Pagodas were used as temples. The number of stories was always uneven. Elaborate decorations are typical.*

In contrast to the pleasant homes of the rich, the poor people lived in hovels made of earth and covered with thatched roofs. Their homes were dreary and poorly furnished. They had to be satisfied with such plain foods as millet, rice, and poultry or pork. Because their farms were so small, the peasants had few cattle to provide meat.

The nobles had leisure time in which to play chess, go hunting, train horses, gamble, watch cockfights, and participate in fencing matches. A poor man, on the other hand, had to spend all his waking hours making a living.

## THE CH'IN DYNASTY TRIES TO CREATE A STRONG CENTRAL GOVERNMENT

**Shih Huang** In the third century B.C. the emperor of China ended the

power of the dukes by seizing their provinces and uniting them with China proper. Shih Huang (shih'hwäng) (247-210 B.C.), a member of the Ch'in Dynasty, took political control into his own hands and created the Chinese Empire. His family had started by governing the provinces of Ch'in, from which the name "China" is taken.

Shih Huang imposed one code of laws over all China and wiped out all conflicting laws that had been made within the different provinces. He proclaimed standard weights and measures for businessmen of the entire country. He collected and destroyed all weapons so that there would be no danger of revolt. The country was strengthened by the construction of a Great Wall along its northern border. Successive emperors added to the wall until in the fifteenth century A.D. it was fifteen hundred miles long and twenty-five feet thick in some places. It ran over mountains and across valleys and required such hard labor to build that it has been said that every stone in it cost a life.

Shih Huang tried to change many Chinese customs, but the followers of

*The Great Wall consisted of two brick walls, filled in with earth. Every few hundred yards were lookout towers.*

Monkmeyer





Confucius protested vigorously against change. Shih Huang ordered them killed and their writings burned, but popular discontent became so strong that the Ch'in Dynasty was compelled to give way to a new ruling family.

#### THE HAN DYNASTY, A PERIOD OF HIGH CULTURE

The Han Dynasty took control of China in 202 B.C. Over the next four hundred years of that reign, Chinese culture was improved and spread to other parts of the world. It was during this period that the name of Confucius became sacred. As late as 1589 the emperor ordered sacrifices made to Confucius in all government schools. The greatest Han ruler was Wu Ti (wōō'tī) (140-87 B.C.). He not only drove back the invading Huns but also extended the borders of China to include Manchuria and Sinkiang. This strengthening and expansion of China led to an increase in trade. It was at this time, too, that the Chinese opened up trade routes to

Mesopotamia, Egypt, and Rome. One route was the Silk Road, the long, overland route across central Asia west to the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. Another road led down through mountain passes to the Indus River and by sea to Africa and Europe. The Chinese traders carried not only the products that their countrymen had made but also the ideas and ways of living that the Chinese had been following, and in turn they brought back new ideas from the peoples they visited. Among the most influential of these ideas was Buddhism (bōō'd'ism), which was introduced into China from India in the first century A.D. Millions of Chinese became Buddhists.

**Art** The Chinese were an artistic people and expressed themselves in many forms. The architects created a distinctive style of public building by giving a steep slope to the roof and turning up its corners. Most of these buildings were made of wood.

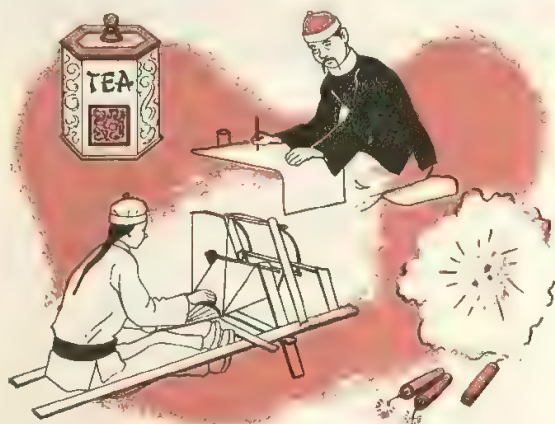
Sculpture did not become an important art until about 200 B.C., and after Bud-

dhism was brought into China, figures of Buddha (bōōd'-ā) sculptured in stone, clay, and bronze became common. Among the Chinese were highly skilled painters. The temple walls were decorated by these artists, who also painted on paper and bamboo mats. Ceramics, the art of making clay products, was the finest contribution of the Chinese to art. As early as 3000 B.C. beautiful pieces were created. Since they were useful as well as beautiful, chinaware, as it came to be called, became famous. Metal craftsmen moulded bronze into ornamental vases, jars, cups, and fine decorations. Other artists worked with jade, which is a beautiful, hard stone. Ornaments for personal adornment and for religious symbols were painstakingly carved from this jade. Chinese women produced lovely embroidery used on clothing.

**Inventions** Besides art, literature, and philosophy, the ancient Chinese gave other things to the world. They learned to weave silk and made beautiful designs for decorating it. They cultivated tea and dried it for later use. Ink, paper, pencils, and printing were also known to the Chinese. They invented the water mill, too. In later years the Chinese discovered that coal, or "black stones," would burn and make a practical fuel for heating their homes. Firecrackers invented by the Chinese were the forerunners of the gun powder which has been put to so many constructive and destructive uses in our world. In the eighth century A.D. the Chinese replaced hand printing with block printing. They carved an entire page of figures on one wooden block and then stamped as many copies of it as they wanted, a clever step toward the "bed" of our modern presses. Some time later the

Chinese invented movable type, which made it unnecessary to carve so many separate blocks.

The Buddhist religion stimulated an interest in printing because the Buddhist monks thought that they would be especially blessed if they duplicated the sacred scriptures and distributed them to other people to read. Printing led the Chinese to make the first playing cards and also paper money, in the tenth century A.D. These were some of the products and ideas that were carried over the long trade routes to western Asia and Europe and for which we must give credit to ancient China.



*You make daily use of many things and ideas that came to the modern world by way of ancient China.*

1. In what river valleys did the Chinese civilization develop?
2. What barriers isolated China from the rest of the world?
3. What achievements had the Chinese made before the Chou Dynasty got control of China in the twelfth century B.C.?
4. How strictly did the Chou Dynasty rule the Chinese people?
5. Where did China get its name?
6. What was the importance of Shih Huang in Chinese progress?



7. What steps of progress were made in China during the Han Dynasty?
8. Who founded the religion of Taoism? Point out two ideas of Taoism.
9. When did Confucius live? Point out two ways in which he shaped the Chinese civilization.
10. Mention several Chinese inventions.

## INDIAN CIVILIZATION GROWS AMID DIFFICULTIES

Jutting out from the southern part of Asia is the peninsula of India. It is about half the size of the United States. North of it lie the Himalayas (hǐ mǎ' lá yāz), the highest mountains in the world. A branch of these, circling southwestward, is called the Hindu Kush Mountains. There are several passes through these mountains through which hordes of invaders came into India at different times. Despite the invasions, however, the mountains formed a barrier to contact and trade with the outside world, so there was very little association between India and Mesopotamia. The

*It was through these snow-capped mountains of the Himalayas that Hindus and later Mohammedans came into India. In 1953 the highest peak, Mt. Everest, was climbed. The low country is in Tibet.*

fertile Ganges and Indus river valleys of northern India are capable of supporting large populations, though irrigation is necessary in the Indus Valley. The large triangle south of these valleys is chiefly a plateau, where a variety of crops is grown. Thus India, like China, being in an isolated position and possessing certain advantages, developed a culture that was quite its own.

**Early Progress** The Indians progressed through stages similar to those of peoples in the other centers of civilization. They learned to do about the same things that other peoples did in the Paleolithic and Neolithic cultures. Throughout history, even in our modern world, when one country is inventing or developing something new, clever minds in other countries are thinking along the same lines.

Civilization was first achieved in the Indus Valley about 4,000 B.C., about the same time as in the Tigris-Euphrates Valley. However, in India the rainfall and fertile soils were so widespread that the main reason for settling in the river valleys

Ewing Galloway



was to be near transportation routes rather than to find water and fertile soil.

The Indus Valley civilization was far advanced. For example, one ancient town had broad streets and a terra cotta drainage system that was still sound when archeologists uncovered it in recent years. The town's brick houses were several stories high. Some of them were equipped with baths. These Indians had learned many types of handicrafts. They carved ornaments from stone, molded small statues from clay, baked beautiful pottery, and fashioned razors, chisels, and knives of metal.

This civilization, for some unknown reason, came to an end about 2500 B.C.

**Aryans** The original inhabitants of India were short, dark, curly-haired people who occupied the whole peninsula. They were called Dravidians and were related to the Negro race. As early as 2000 B.C., a horde of Indo-Europeans came southeast through the mountain passes into India. They were Aryans (*âr'i-âns*), members of the white race. At first they intermarried with the natives, but later this was forbidden. The invaders, who were later called Hindus (*hîn'dōoz*), finally took possession of the Indus Valley and then spread eastward. They settled down to a life of herding and agriculture, raising wheat, barley, and millet. Oxen were used for drawing wagons and pulling plows, and cattle provided meat for the table. The villages that grew up were busy places. The people worked with the products of the farms. They tanned hides for leather, spun woolen yarn, wove cloth, and made dairy products. Metal workers hammered out hoes and plowshares for the farmers to use in planting and cultivating their crops.



Boston Museum of Fine Arts

*This ancient and famous painting shows the Indian god, Krishna, driving the sacred cows into a village at sundown.*

**Heroic Age of India** During the Heroic Age (1000–500 B.C.), so-called because it was an age of much warfare, the Aryans migrated eastward into the Ganges (*gân'jēz*) Valley. They organized city-states much like those in ancient Egypt. For protection the cities were surrounded by walls and deep moats filled with water. The streets of the cities were laid out according to plan and lighted and cleaned regularly. Trade grew rapidly on the rivers and reached out into the ocean. Ships made their way to Mesopotamia and Egypt. The wealthier people had time to enjoy such pastimes as hunting, gambling, fighting, and dancing shows, but the poor were kept occupied making a living.

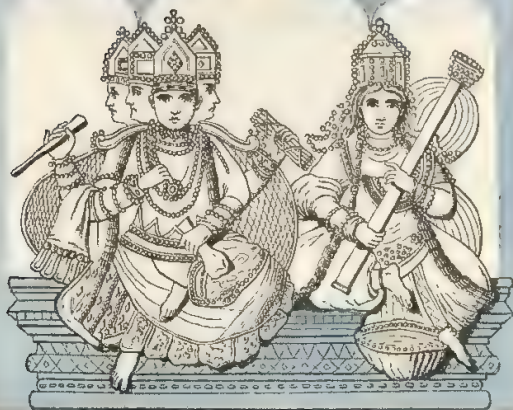
In order to keep the millions of natives under control, the nobles and warriors of the invading Aryans divided all of the people into rigid classes, or *castes*. This caste system became firmly established in



Indian life. The members of the highest caste were called Brahmans (brä'mins) because they devoted their lives to managing the worship of Brahma, the creator of all things. The Brahmans were learned men. They were among the few people of India who could read and write. Using those skills, the Brahmans wrote down the religious teachings in the *Rig-Veda* (vā'dā), a collection of hymns which had been passed down by word of mouth from generation to generation. Now they were set down in Indian writing, called *Sanskrit*. Be-

No high caste person could marry one of a lower caste, nor could he work for or even help him. Below the four castes were the outcastes, or *untouchables*, whose very shadow, falling across the food of a Brahman, would make it unfit to be eaten by one of a higher caste. The outcastes had to live in misery in their own section of the town.

**Buddhism** About 500 B.C. the masses of Indians began to hear a voice of consolation and hope. It was that of Gautama (gou'tā mā), a Hindu prince who had renounced his throne to live the life of a hermit. He was given the title of "Buddha (bööd'ā), meaning "The Enlightened." From his teachings the religion of Buddhism developed. Gautama taught that all men, regardless of caste, could know the truth and worship the Great Spirit, Brahma. Happiness could come through right living and knowledge. He taught that man's earthly life has many sorrows, but that life on earth is brief. Man's spirit is gradually purified after death by living several lives in different forms, in animals, trees, and plants as well as in the human body, before it returns to the Great Spirit.



Bettmann Archive

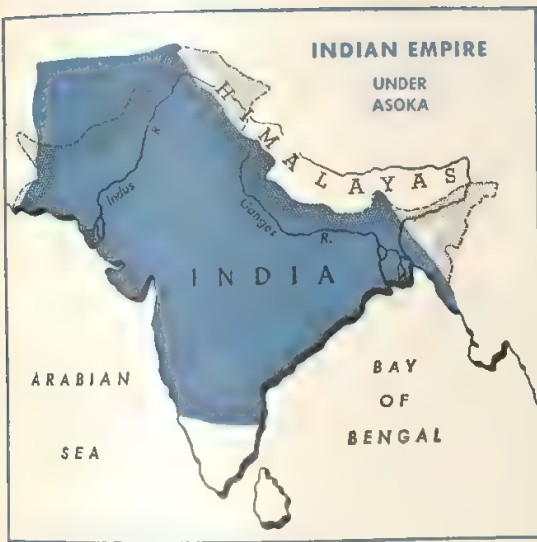
This page from the *Rig-Veda* shows Brahma as the Hindus pictured him, with the goddess of learning, music, and speech.

cause they controlled education and developed elaborate rules for performing sacrifices, the Brahmans became a special, powerful class.

The nobles and warriors who descended from the Aryan invaders belonged to the second class in the caste system. After them, coming down the scale, were the skilled workers and businessmen. The fourth caste contained the great masses of common people, most of whom were serfs.

**Maurya Dynasty** Northwest-ern India had been conquered by King Cyrus of Persia in the sixth century B.C. About 325 B.C. Alexander the Great conquered Persia and extended his Greek empire into India. Upon his death, Chandragupta (chün drā gööp'tā), a local warrior, seized control of the Indian part of Alexander's empire. Chandragupta became the first emperor of India by subjugating other princes of northern India. He founded the Maurya (mou'ūr yū) Dynasty, which governed the major part of India for many





begin civilized ways at an early date. Men in such far-apart places as Egypt, the Fertile Crescent, China, and India progressed from barbarism to civilization in the centuries between 4000 B.C. and 300 B.C. They learned how to govern large numbers of people, to design and build beautiful and impressive buildings, to produce great literature, and to develop systems of religions and set up rules of conduct. In that ancient past, mankind traveled far along the path of progress.

The men who achieved these things have long perished from the earth. Even their civilizations have gone; but they passed on to their descendants many of the good things that they learned. As a result, we today continue to enjoy the fruits of their labors.

years. In 273 B.C. Asoka (á sō'ká), the grandson of Chandragupta, became the emperor. With the large army he inherited, Asoka expanded his empire until it included nearly all of India. The bloodshed, cruelty, and suffering of war shocked him. He was converted to the ways of peace and kindness taught by Buddha, and he abandoned militarism and force. Asoka freed prisoners and issued pardons for many offenders. He built hospitals for the sick and forbade animal sacrifices. He spread Buddhism by sending missionaries to all parts of India and even to places beyond India. Upon Asoka's death, this statesmanship of mercy unfortunately was abandoned by his successor, a member of the Maurya Dynasty, who led the empire back to a less enlightened way of life.

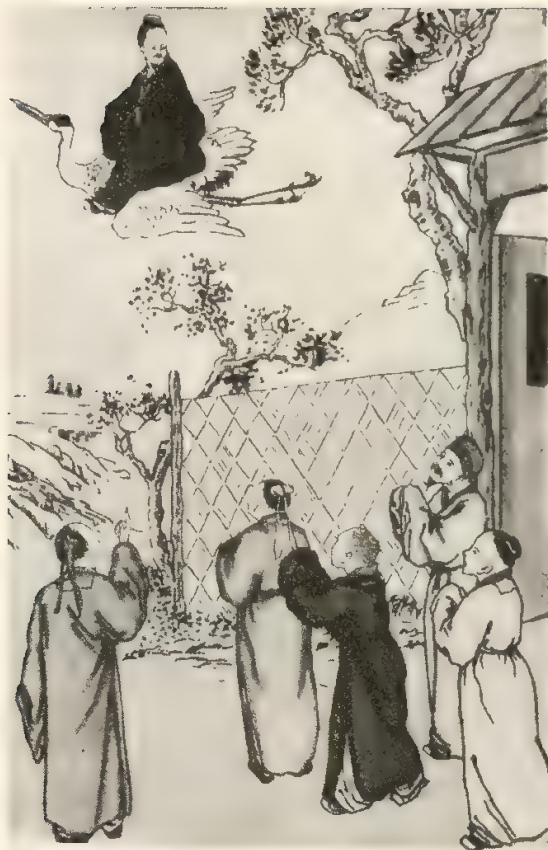
### WE ARE HEIRS OF MANY DIFFERENT PEOPLES

From this unit of the world's history we have seen that civilization sprang up in several places at about the same period of time. White men were not the only ones to

1. In what river valley did the Indian civilization develop?
2. Who were the Dravidians? the Hindus? the Brahmins?
3. What progress had the first civilized Indians made before 2500 B.C.?
4. What further advances were made by the invading Aryans by 500 B.C.?
5. What are the principal classes of the Indian caste system?
6. What was the holy book of the Brahmins?
7. Why was Gautama called Buddha? Where was Buddhism generally accepted?
8. Who founded the Indian empire? To what dynasty did he belong?
9. What was the importance of Asoka?
10. What was the earliest Indian writing called?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- I. The Great Wall of China successfully held out invaders for centuries. Why would it not do so today?



Bettmann Archive

This Chinese woodcut shows the Chinese conception of Lao-Tse ascending to heaven in the presence of some of his followers.

was there about the religious and philosophical teachings of India and China that tended to make their scholars less practical than Western scholars?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• Brahmanism • Buddhism • caste system  
• dynasty • guild • Heroic Age • Rig-Veda • Sanskrit • "Son of Heaven"  
Taoism •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

a. From the dates listed in Column A below, select the one that belongs to each item listed in Column B.

#### Column A.

1. 2000 B.C.
2. 1000-256 B.C.
3. 1000-500 B.C.
4. 551-478 B.C.
5. 325 B.C.
6. 323 B.C.
7. 273 B.C.
8. 206 B.C.-  
220 A.D.

#### Column B.

1. Chou Dynasty
2. Indo-European migration into India begun
3. Alexander the Great extended his power into India
4. Chandragupta became ruler of India
5. Confucius' lifetime
6. Asoka became emperor of India
7. Han Dynasty
8. Heroic Age in India

b. *Time Table.* Rule a large sheet of paper in columns, one column for each country that you have studied in this unit. At the left margin of the paper, list dates in blocks of 500 years from 4000 B.C. to the birth of Christ. Allow an inch for each 500 years. In each column opposite the correct date, which you will write in, record the important events of that country. You will add to your time table at the end of each unit. It may be put on the blackboard or the bulletin board on a much larger scale.

2. Why did the Chinese revise their system of writing in the twentieth century?

3. How did it happen that the Sanskrit writing of the Hindus was related to Greek and Latin?

4. Why is land so valuable in China?

5. Why are the rivers of China of such importance to the people?

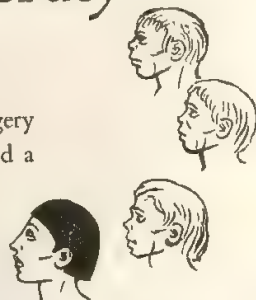
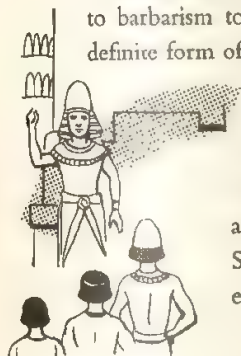
6. The word for *caste* in Sanskrit is the word for *color*. Why was the word *color* used for *caste*?

7. Can you suggest reasons why the Indus Valley civilization came to a sudden end?

8. It has been said that the Orientals are thinkers while Westerners are doers. Like all such sayings, this is an exaggeration. Yet what

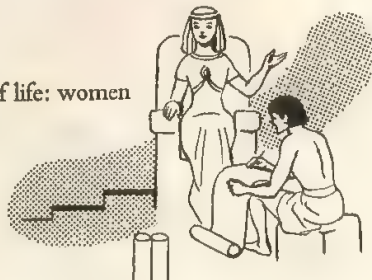
## 2 · Milestones Toward Democracy

After thousands of years had passed, and man had progressed from savagery to barbarism to civilization, those people who had settled in Egypt had a definite form of government, although it was far from democratic.

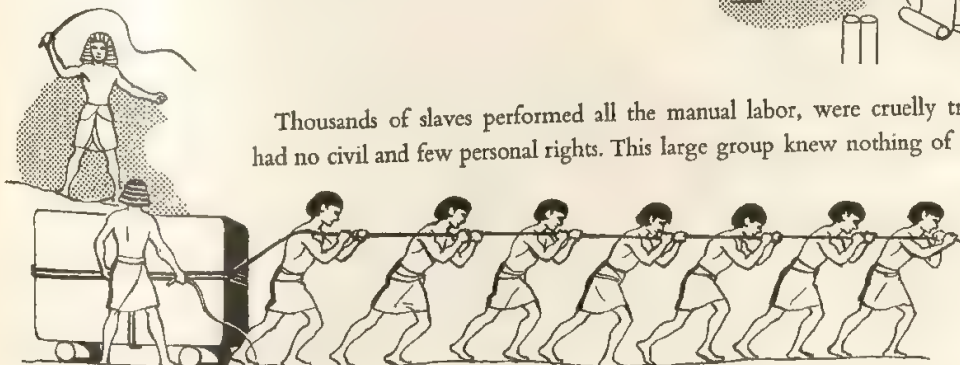


The early pharaohs were all-powerful, but the nobles had much to say about the laws. They gradually became more powerful than the pharaohs. So government passed from one man to several men, and freedom in government made a small gain.

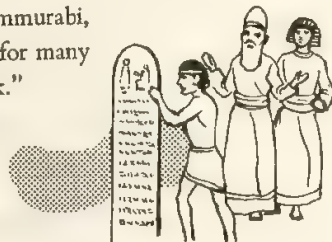
The Egyptians set up another milestone toward a democratic way of life: women could hold and inherit property in their own name.



Thousands of slaves performed all the manual labor, were cruelly treated, and had no civil and few personal rights. This large group knew nothing of liberty.



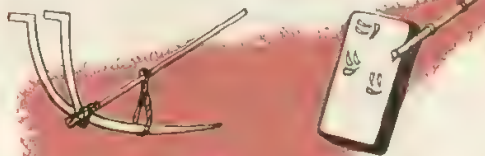
In Babylonia, mankind made real progress toward liberty. Hammurabi, although an all-powerful ruler, set up a code of laws that provided for many human rights and declared that "the strong shall not injure the weak."



Throughout history, mankind has gone backward as well as forward during certain periods. In ancient India a caste system arose which divided the people into rigid classes. The lowest class had no civil rights and were social outcasts. Very slowly over the centuries, however, progress toward democracy continued.



## 2 · Milestones of Living



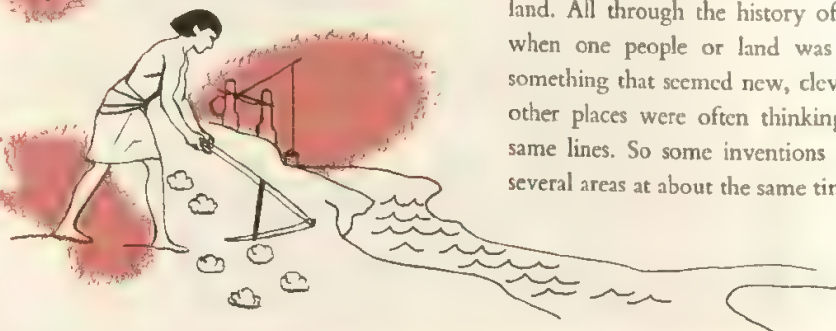
The marvelous civilizations of ancient Egypt, Babylonia, China, and India not only produced new tools and new ideas but also improved materials and processes that had come to them from other peoples. By the time man had learned to write, he had taken great strides in his way of living, as demonstrated in the story of these four civilizations. He had set up many more and important milestones of living.



### PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION



Some of the progress pictured here may or may not have been achieved first in any one land. All through the history of the world, when one people or land was developing something that seemed new, clever minds in other places were often thinking along the same lines. So some inventions appeared in several areas at about the same time.



### 3. Places to locate on the map:

- China · Ganges River · Himalaya Mountains · Hindu Kush Mountains · India · Indus River · Plateau of Mongolia · Plateau of Tibet · Shantung Peninsula · Silk Route · Yangtze River · Yellow River ·

### 4. Can you identify these persons?

- Asoka · Chandragupta · Confucius · Gautama · Lao-Tse · Shih-Huang ·

### 5. Can you identify these deities?

- Brahma · Buddha · Shang-Ti · Tao ·

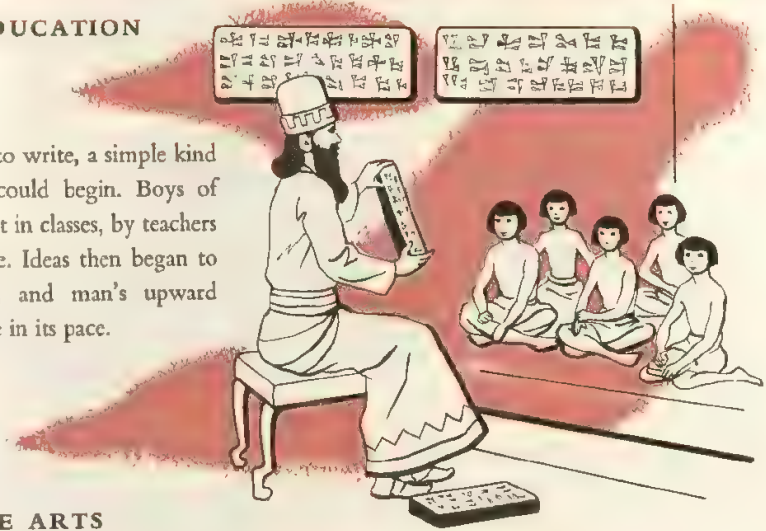
## II. Group Assignments

1. Appoint members of the class to bring in reports of events taking place in India or China and their neighboring countries today. Is our own country interested in any of these events?

2. Divide the class into three groups accord-

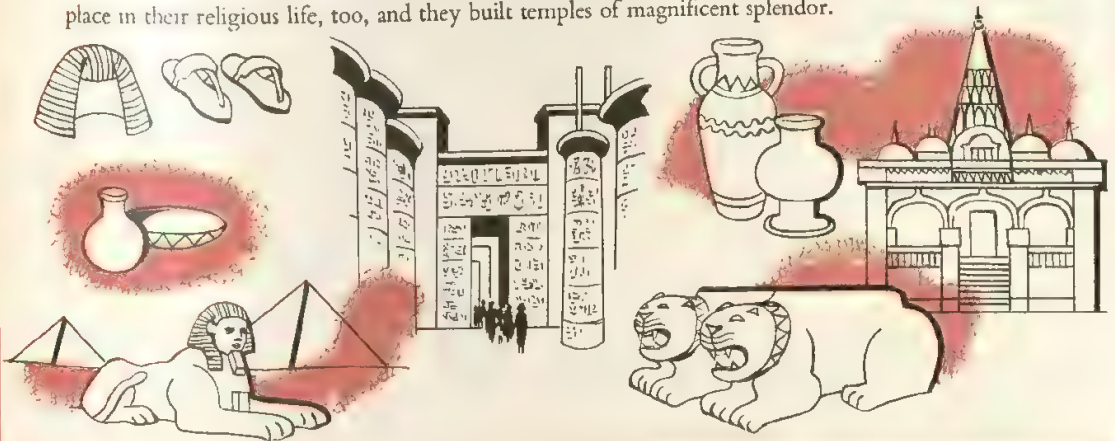
## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

When men learned to write, a simple kind of formal education could begin. Boys of noble birth were taught in classes, by teachers chosen for the purpose. Ideas then began to spread more quickly, and man's upward climb picked up a little in its pace.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

Early man combined usefulness with beauty. Skilled workmen produced delicate china, decorative furniture, pottery and metalwork of beautiful design, colorful garments. They also created beauty for its own sake, and produced handsome pieces for decoration and ornament. Beauty had a definite place in their religious life, too, and they built temples of magnificent splendor.



ing to their interests. Let each group collect pictures of Chinese architecture, china, or painting for the bulletin board. Appoint one person from each group to explain the pictures of his group.

### III. Can You Express Yourself Well?

I. Give a talk to the class on why there is so much poverty in China or India. Consult an economic geography for information on the subject.

2. Despite the poverty of the masses of the population in India, there is great wealth in the country. List the factors in India that have made it possible to produce such wealth.

3. Using the World Almanac or other source find the area and population of China proper and of the United States. From these figures compute the density of the population of each country. Discuss in class the problems that this difference in population density may cause.

4. Consult a person from India or China, if there is one in your neighborhood, to learn what customs of his country are interesting and important to him. Tell the class what you learn. If possible, secure pictures or objects to illustrate your talk.

5. Give a floor talk on one of the following topics:

• Confucius • Gautama • Rice-farming in China • Buddhism • Court life in ancient China •

#### IV. History Related to the Fine Arts

1. If you are studying art, bring some Chinese, Indian, and modern American designs to class and point out the beauty to be found in each.

2. If you are studying music, look up the types of instruments used by the ancient Chinese or Indians. Show pictures of them to the class and explain their uses and the type of music they produced.

3. If you have a museum in your neighborhood that has works of art from India or China, arrange with the director to show them to the class.

#### V. Picture Study

1. On page 60 is a picture of a Chinese festival to the Yellow River. Why were such festivals held?

2. Why do the rivers coming from the Himalayas, like the one shown on page 66, never run dry?

#### GOOD READING

AUGUR, H., *Book of Fairs*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1939

*The author describes fairs from the earliest times down to the World's Fairs of New York and San Francisco in 1939. Well written, with good illustrations.*

BEST, ALLENA, *Honey of the Nile*, Oxford University Press, 1938

*The story of the girl queen of ancient Egypt who fled*

*from the court on a boat carrying beehives down the Nile.*  
CHIERA, EDWARD, *They Wrote on Clay*, Chicago University Press, 1938

*An interesting account of ancient Babylon and of the work of the archeologists who deciphered her story from clay tablets.*

DAUGHERTY, SONIA, *Wings of Glory*, Oxford University Press, 1940

*A fictionized life of King David and a picture of his times.*

FITCH, FLORENCE MARY, *Their Search for God: Ways of Worship in the Orient*, Lothrop, Lee & Shepard Co., Inc., 1947

*Describes forms of worship of oriental peoples.*

GAER, JOSEPH, *How the Great Religions Began*, The McBride Co. Inc., 1929

*Tells simply the stories of Judaism, Buddhism, Confucianism, and later religions.*

GARDNER, HELEN, *Art through the Ages*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948

*This is a valuable book for the study of painting, sculpture, and architecture from the ancient Egyptians to modern times. Written for high school pupils, well illustrated.*

MALVERN, GLADYS, *Tamar*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1952

*The story of a Jewish girl and of a Roman boy, the son of a nobleman who had lost his wealth. Intertwined with the story of the life and death of Jesus.*

MILLS, DOROTHY, *Book of the Ancient World for Younger Readers*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1923

*The story of history up to the coming of the Greeks written in an entertaining manner.*

OGG, OSCAR, *26 Letters*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1948

*The story of the development of our alphabet.*

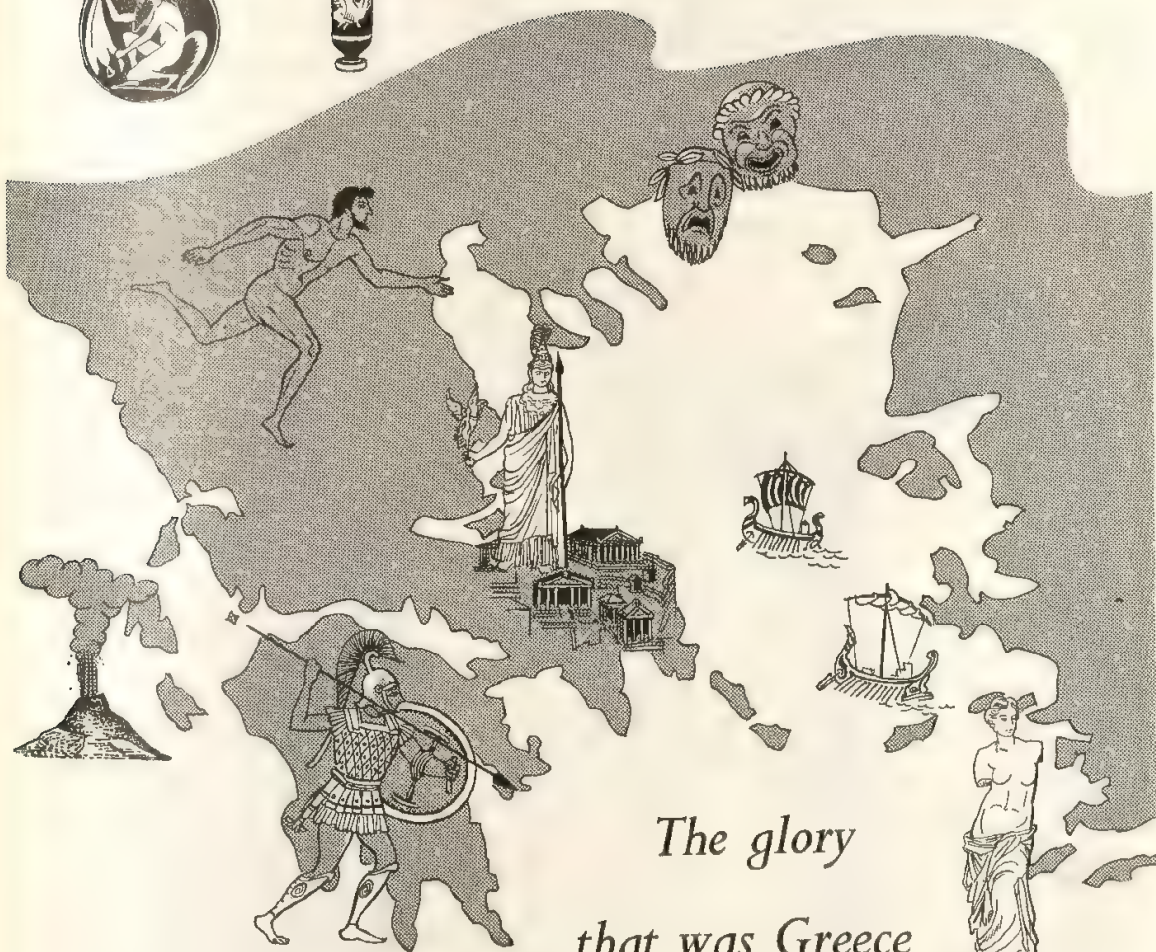
ROLT-WHEELER, FRANCIS, *The Tamer of Herds*, Appleton-Century Crofts, Inc., 1928

*This tale depicts life in ancient Chaldea. Very easy reading.*

SEEGER, ELIZABETH, *Pageant of Chinese History*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1947

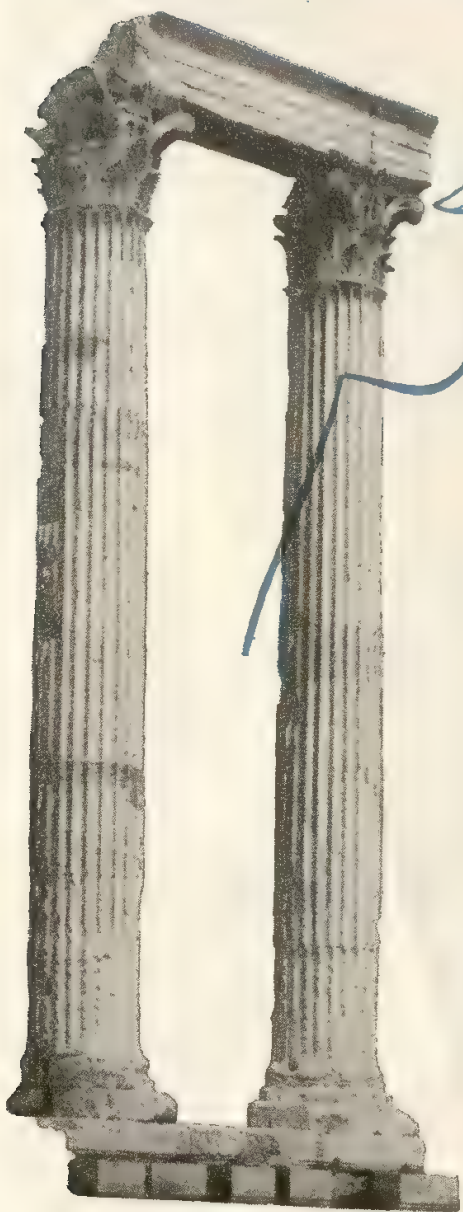
*Written for young people, this history covers the period from 3000 B.C. to the defeat of the Japanese in 1945.*





*The glory  
that was Greece*





# ΟΙ ΕΛΛΗΝΕΣ

## *The Greeks*

Our modern world lays great stress on size and power. Those things are important in the world of today. Also important are achievements in the various fields of art, in science, and in ideas for making the world a better place for all to live. In these no single people have excelled the ancient Greeks. They were few in number; their country was small and not rich in resources; and yet today we pay high respect to the glories of the Greek civilization. In this unit we are to learn something about those glories, which still affect our lives.

The Greeks were the first Europeans to attain civilization. They came from the same Indo-European stock as the Persians. Their conquests of the peninsula of Greece formed the first chapter in their history. Then, over a period of 500 years, they developed a culture that in many respects has never been surpassed.

As you read this unit you will learn about some of the most outstanding writers, builders, sculptors, thinkers, and statesmen of all time. Their work endures

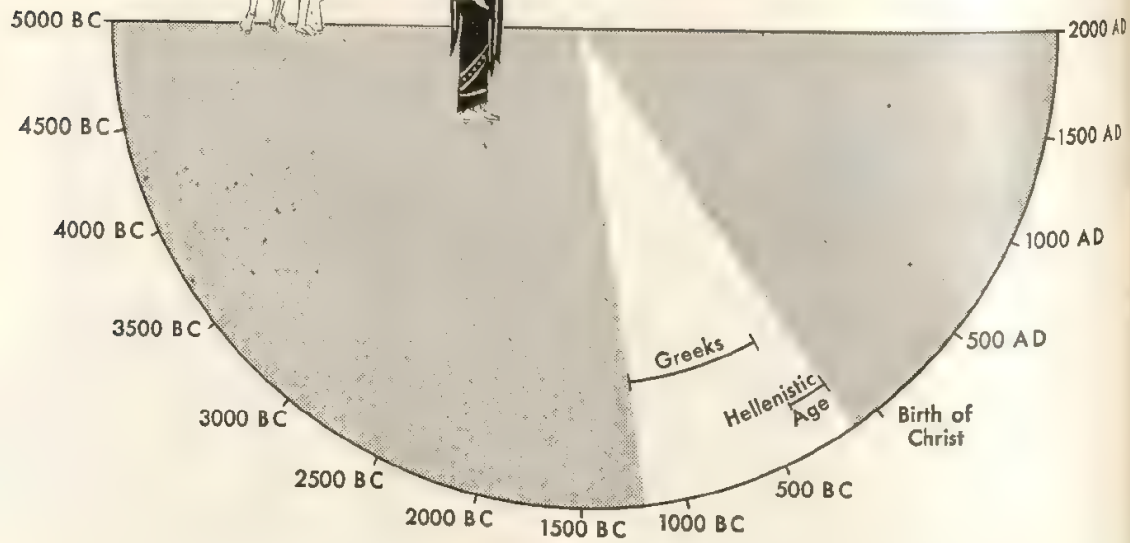
today. It is part of our own American culture. If you want to be a sculptor, you will study the masterpieces of the Greeks; if you want to be a philosopher, you will study the ideas of the Greek thinkers; if you hope to become an architect, the study of Greek buildings will be a part of your technical study and education; if you would

like to be a great actor, you will have to become familiar with Greek drama; if you want to be a writer, you could do no better than to study the style of Greek authors; if you have ambitions in science you will have to study the achievements of the ancient Greek scientists. The Greeks, though separated from us by nearly 2500 years, are really very close to us. Our modern age was built upon many of the ideas of ancient Greek civilization. That is one of the reasons why your study of Greece will be interesting.



Here is our title written in ancient Greek. It is pronounced hoy hēl'lán nēs.







## 6

# The Greeks: Political Pioneers

A small peninsula in southeastern Europe that projects into the Mediterranean Sea is the country of Greece. This was the home of the first strictly European civilization. Numerous islands dot the Aegean Sea to the east. Deep bays indent the coastline, making good harbors, while the Gulf of Corinth almost cuts the peninsula in two. There are numerous mountain ranges running crisscross through Greece, cutting off one section from another. In the small valleys between the mountains the soil is fertile and good for the raising of grain. On the slopes of the surrounding mountains, grapes, citrus fruits, and olives grow, while higher up on the mountain-side is pasture land for herds of cattle and flocks of sheep.

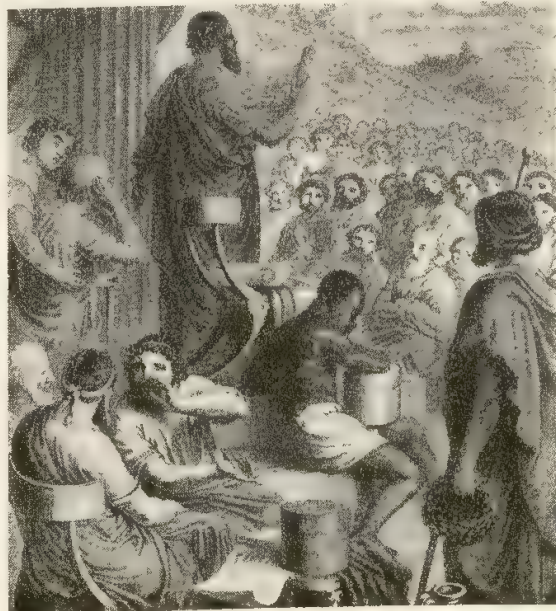
## INDO-EUROPEAN TRIBESMEN SETTLE IN GREECE

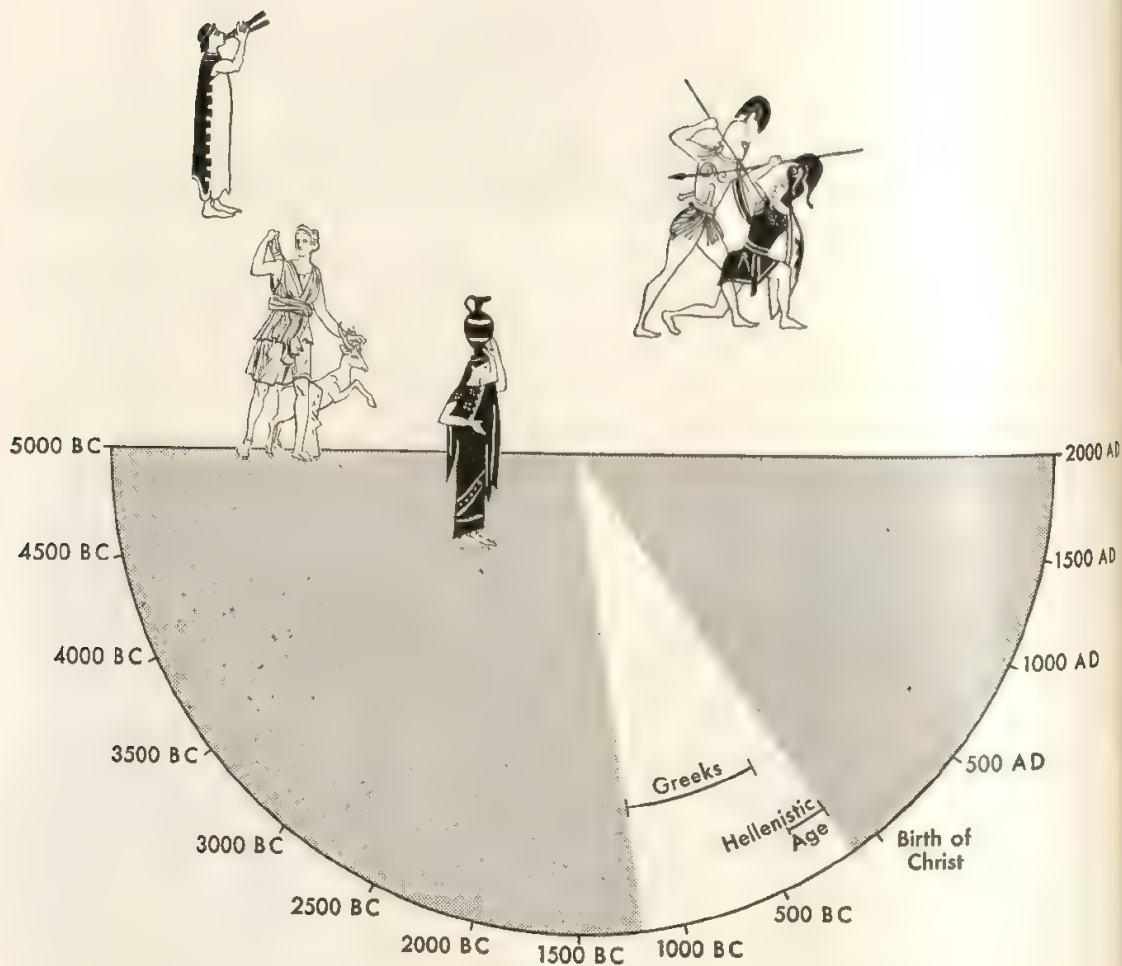
**Migration** Into this land there came about 2000 B.C. a group of semi-barbaric herdsmen. They were a branch of the Indo-Europeans moving westward. Their coming was not sudden and dramatic but rather a slow migration from the north, covering a number of generations. The first wave of invaders were the Achaeans (ă kē'ăns), who swept all the way across the peninsula (1800-1400 B.C.) and

across the sea into Crete. About three hundred years later another wave of tribesmen, the Dorians (dō'rī'ăns), overpowered the Achaeans and occupied that part of Greece known as the Peloponnesus (pēl-ōp ōn nē'sūs) which lies south of the Corinthian (kō rīn'thī an) Gulf. These tribesmen also went across to Crete. Of the four invading tribes, the most important was the third, the Ionians (ī ō'nē'ăns), who settled in the peninsula of Attica (ăt'tīc'ă), on the island of Euboea (ū bē'ă) in the middle Aegean Sea and along the shores of Asia

*Herodotus was an historian of the fifth century B.C. His writings were interesting, though sometimes fanciful.*

Schoenfeld Collection from Three Lions









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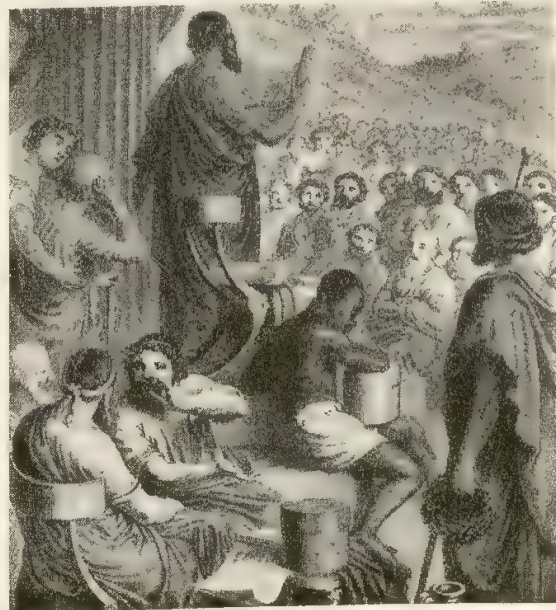
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Schoenfeld Collection from Three Lions



Minor. Another group of invaders, the Aetolians (ē tō'li āns), occupied the northern part of the peninsula. Since none of these tribesmen could write, and therefore left no records, we know very little about them, but they finally took possession of the entire Aegean world.

The wandering, crude tribesmen were herdsmen, with flocks of cattle and sheep, but as they settled in Greece they gradually, over many years, turned to agriculture for a living. The farmers lived in villages and went out to their fields, which surrounded the villages. Farming methods had not changed since the days when the Egyptians were toiling for Thutmose III. The Greeks sowed and reaped grain by hand. Oxen were used to tread the grain. The wind blew the chaff away, leaving the kernels of wheat and barley to be gathered into baskets. Much of the land of Greece could not be tilled, and as the population grew, it became necessary for the Greeks to import a part of the grain they used.

**City-States Develop** As these rugged Greek tribesmen settled down over the centuries (1200-1000 B.C.) they overthrew the Aegean civilization they had found there, but not without absorbing some of its culture. The conquered peoples were made subjects, but finally the races intermarried, making the Greeks of history a mixed race.

The Greeks settled in the small, fertile valleys and were therefore separated from each other by mountain ridges. These communities grew into little city-states. Each city-state with its surrounding countryside formed an independent nation, with a king and a council of leading citizens. There were many such city-states in Greece, but four of them became the most important in

history. They were the commercial city of Corinth; Sparta, the chief city of the Peloponnesus; Thebes, the leader in the section of Greece known as Boeotia (bē ō'shī ā), and Athens, in the peninsula of Attica.

**Forces Leading to Disunity** By the time ways of travel had improved so that it was easy to get over the mountains from one city to another, such deep loyalties for their own little nation and such different governments had developed that there was intense rivalry among the city-states. The Greeks never rose above these rivalries and jealousies. In this disunity were the seeds for the final downfall of the ancient Greeks as an independent people.

**Forces Leading to Unity** Despite these jealousies, the Greeks had a sense of kinship to one another. They spoke of the non-Greeks as outsiders, or *barbarians*, while they thought that they themselves had descended from a single ancestor named Hellen. Hence they called themselves Hellenes (hēl'lēnz), their country Hellas, and their civilization Hellenic. There were

*There were Greek city-states all over the Mediterranean world. The mythical home of their gods was Mt. Olympus.*







Bettmann Archive

*In Greek mythology, Prometheus, the giver of fire to mankind, stole it from Zeus. This old woodcut pictures the theft. For the crime, Prometheus was chained to a rock in the Caucasus.*

different dialects among them, but the language of all Greeks was enough alike so that the citizens of the several city-states could understand one another without too much difficulty. The Greeks throughout their land listened to and admired the tales of their great bard, Homer, for he told them of their past history, common to all Greeks no matter from what city-state they came. Finally, all the Greeks worshipped the same gods and joined in holding festivals in their honor. At times these unifying influences triumphed, and the Greek city-states co-operated. More often, however, they did not.

### **Greek Religion**

Homer gives us many pictures of the gods and their way of living. The great deities lived on Mount Olympus. Zeus (zūs) was the king of the skies and the chief god. Athena (ā thē'nā) was the goddess of war and the special protectress of Athens. Other deities ruled over other aspects of life. The Greeks felt that their gods were very close to them. Furthermore, the gods had very human

characteristics, as Homer pictures them. They married, were jealous of each other, had fits of anger, and their conduct was often far from admirable. Such deities did not inspire the Greeks to noble action or even to right conduct.

1. Tell about the migration of the tribesmen into Greece.
2. Name and locate the four chief Greek city-states.
3. How did the geography of Greece affect the Greeks politically?
4. What unifying influences were there among the Greek city-states?
5. Name two of the principal Greek deities.
6. From what writer do we get most of our information about early Greek religion?

### **THE GREEKS EXPERIMENT WITH OLIGARCHY AND DEMOCRACY**

#### **Days of the Monarchy**

The Greek cities often had more contact with the outside world than with each other. Each city-state, therefore, developed a government and way of living of its own.





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*Notice the round decorated shield, the helmet, and the long, double-pointed spear of the young Greek soldier who is being sworn into the Greek army. The paintings on the walls are typical.*

All the Greek city-states started out as monarchies, ruled by kings who had groups of elderly noblemen to advise them. These nobles made up the Council. The weapon-bearing citizens who met to decide matters of importance for the city formed the Assembly. As time passed, however, the governments of the various states developed differently. These differences in government were another stumbling block to their living in harmony. This was particularly true of Athens and Sparta, the cities that played such important parts in Greek history.

to peers. Each peer had a large estate, but since his military service lasted until he was sixty, he spent little time at home. The peers had to satisfy three requirements. They must be the sons of peers. They must have had a full course in military training. They must live in the army barracks until they were thirty. This group of well-trained men formed the best army of its day.

The freemen were permitted to carry on commerce and engage in handicrafts.

The manual work on the estates was done by miserable peasants called *helots* who gave one half their crops to their masters. The helots were not permitted to leave the farm and were cruelly treated.

**Spartan Oligarchy** According to tradition, Sparta received her laws from Lycurgus (lĭ kŭr'gŭs), a wise Spartan nobleman. He set up a government for Sparta which was an oligarchy (ŏl'i găr kě), or a government ruled by a few nobles. Chief among these were two kings whose principal job was to lead the army. There were three classes of people in Sparta: peers, freemen, and helots (hě'lotz).

Full citizenship in Sparta was restricted

The laws, government, and customs of Sparta turned the city into a military camp, and there was no place for cultural or political improvements. As a result, Sparta never progressed politically beyond an oligarchy. Even so, she was much more democratic than the old empires of the East had been, where there was one-man rule. In Sparta, the government was shared by members of the army.

**Athenian Oligarchy** Athens, too, went through a period of rule by oligarchy. This did not satisfy the Athenians who at length demanded reforms. After a hard and long struggle, a leader named Draco (drä'cō) gave the Athenians a written code of laws about 621 B.C. Although these laws were very harsh, the people were pleased because they could now at least know what the laws were. Before, laws were not written and might easily be changed by dishonest judges.

As the Greeks expanded into Italy and the Black Sea region, the Athenians developed a profitable trade, and manufacturing brought in a new rich class. They bought up land and developed large estates. The poor farmers often could not compete with them. In bad years the farmers had to go into debt, even giving themselves and their children as security. When they failed to make their payments on the debts, they were taken into slavery.

### Growth of Democracy in Athens

At this time a great man, Solon (sō'lōn), arose as a reformer in Athens. Although he was a nobleman himself, he sympathized with the poor and wanted to see them relieved of their burdens. He gave Athens a new constitution. It provided that: (1) all men who were slaves for debt were to be free and in the future no man was to be made a slave for debt; (2) every citizen, no matter how poor, was to be permitted to take part in the Assembly; (3) all Athenians were divided into classes according to their wealth and only the highest class could be elected to the high offices; (4) juries were created to which all citizens could appeal.

Solon was not democratic. He believed in the rule of the nobles and not in self-government by the people, but he safe-

guarded the freedom of the common people and thus took a step toward more liberal government for Athens.

Solon's reforms had helped the common people but had left the government firmly in the hands of the nobles. Later another reformer appeared who made Athens more democratic. This man was Cleisthenes (klīs'thē nēz). His reforms extended the right of citizenship to all freemen. He did away with the old class of distinctions for voting that Solon had set up. Cleisthenes created a Council of five hundred members chosen by lot from among the citizens to serve one year. Since no man could be a member of the Council for more than two terms, a large number of citizens had a chance to take part in the work of this body and get more political experience.

*After giving the Greeks his laws, Solon went away for ten years so they could work the laws out alone.*

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Athens had become the first state in the world to permit all the male citizens a voice in the government. This was a step forward even though many men of Athens were not citizens.

## COLONIAL EXPANSION AFFECTS THE GREEKS

**Colonial Expansion** The period between 1200 and 1000 B.C. had been one of expansion of the Greeks throughout the Aegean world. There was a later period of expansion (750-500 B.C.) when some of the Greeks migrated from their cities and founded colonies on the shores of the Black Sea, on the north African coast opposite Greece, in Italy, and even as far west as what is today southern France. From the small settlements they developed the important cities of Byzantium at the entrance to the Black Sea, Syracuse in Sicily, Marseilles in southern Gaul, and Cyrene (sī rē'nē) in North Africa.

Many people left Greece because the land was crowded and opportunities for a good living were scarce. They hoped for more and new land on the frontier to the west. Wherever these settlements were made, independent Greek city-states arose. They carried on trade with the mother city-state and had a sense of loyalty to her, but they paid no political allegiance to her. This, of course, was carrying out the idea of the city-state which the settlers had known in Greece. Wherever the Greeks went they took with them their culture, including their language, the knowledge of writing that they had gained from Phoenician traders, the poems of Homer, the Greek religion, ideas, and products. In short, every Greek colony was a center of Greek culture.

**Greek Commerce** It was in the eighth and seventh centuries B.C. that the Greeks developed a large foreign trade. Since no place in Greece is more than a





hundred miles from the sea, trade and commerce by sea naturally developed. The routes they took were mostly along the coasts because boats were still small and depended for power on sails and oarsmen. The Greeks traded with their colonies in the west and around the Black Sea and with the Egyptians, Syrians, and Phoenicians.

**Craftsmanship** As Athens imported more wheat, barley, and other foods, she turned her attention more and more to manufactures and less to agriculture. We can not think of Athens as having large factories, however. The shops were small. Their owners were craftsmen of whom the city was very proud for they turned out fine products. Most of them remained independent, making and selling their own wares instead of working for others, although some shops had a few hired workers. There were silversmiths, goldsmiths, and coppersmiths, but the chief craft was the making of pottery. Vases, oil jars, and wine jars were beautifully shaped. It would be hard to exaggerate the beauty of the potters' work. After the vase was made on the potter's wheel, an artist decorated it with lovely designs. The clay, obtained from the near-by clay beds, was a pale red and the artists decorated it in black. Pottery-making brought money and fame into Athens, which soon led the world in craftsmanship.

1. Point out the three different types of government used by the Greeks.
2. Into what classes was Sparta divided?
3. How did the leaders, Draco, Solon, and Cleisthenes, try to make the political and economic life of Athens more democratic?
4. When and why did the Greeks form colonies? Name four cities that started as Greek colonies.



Art Institute of Chicago

*Athenians were justly proud of the skill and artistry of their craftsmen, especially the potters.*

#### ATHENS GAINS LEADERSHIP

**Persian Wars** As the Greeks who remained in their homeland grew in importance and power, they came into conflict with the Persian Empire under Darius the Great. You will remember that the Ionian cities of Asia Minor had been conquered by the Persians and were under Persian rule. The Persians proved to be harsh masters, and some of the Greeks revolted against them. Unable to win alone against the Great King, they asked Athens for aid. This so angered Darius that he determined to put an end once and for all to such interference. He sent a mighty army and navy against Athens, but a storm drove his fleet upon the rocks and his army suffered from hardships on the long march through Thrace. Darius was forced for the time being to give up the attack. He did not forget what the Athenians had done, however. He built up another force, which he sent against Athens in 490 B.C. The Athenians, led by their brilliant commander, Miltiades (mil tī'a dēz), went to meet the Persians. At Marathon, on a plain north-



*A conflict between Greece and Persia was almost inevitable. The Greek cities of Asia Minor were on Persia's borders and she had the choice of being troubled by them more or less constantly, or of fighting Greece.*

east of Athens, the two forces fought and the mighty host of Darius suffered a tragic defeat. The Persians left 6400 dead on the field, whereas the Athenians lost only two hundred. The remaining Persians fled to their boats; Athens was saved for the present.

Ten years later Xerxes, who had become the ruler of Persia in 486, determined to avenge the defeat. He sent messengers to the Greek cities asking for water and soil, which to the Persians were the symbols of submission. Most of the cities accepted because they feared a worse fate if they refused and were defeated. Athens, however, threw the messengers into a pit and Sparta cast the messengers sent to her into a well, telling them to get their own water and soil. The Athenians and Spartans then united their efforts against the mighty Persia. The Spartan king, Leonidas (lē ōn'ī dās),

was made commander of the land forces. Themistocles (thē mīs'tō klēz), the greatest Athenian statesman of the day, took charge of the two hundred warships that he had persuaded Athens to build. So the Greeks prepared to meet the attack.

The Persian army was too large to be transported by ship across the Aegean Sea, so they marched overland to the strait between Asia and Europe, Hellespont (hēl'ēs-pōnt). They crossed the Hellespont on a bridge of boats. From there they marched around the Aegean Sea southward toward Athens. Their navy followed along the shore.

The Greeks went to meet them. The army took its stand at a pass in the mountains at Thermopylae (thēr mōp'ī lē), one hundred twenty miles northwest of Athens, while the untried Athenian fleet met the Persian navy. With the help of a storm that wrecked a large part of the Persian

fleet, the Greeks won at sea. On the land the Persians were aided by a Greek traitor who told Xerxes how he could send forces to attack from the rear. Caught between the two parts of the Persian host, the three hundred picked soldiers of Sparta who had been stationed at the pass fought bravely until every one of them was killed. The Persians could now rush through the pass and all Attica lay open to them.

At this critical point Themistocles proposed taking all Athenians to two islands off the mainland. This being done, the fleet was brought into the Bay of Salamis to defend them. Themistocles then sent a false message to the enemy telling them that the Greek fleet was about to slip out of the harbor. The trick worked. When the Persians attacked, their large boats could not maneuver in the bay. They rammed and sank each other.

Xerxes was glad enough to escape to his home. He left behind part of his land force, but they were defeated the next spring (479 B.C.) and the Greeks were freed from the peril that had threatened.

Athens had suffered most by the wars; her city had been burned, her walls torn down, and Attica devastated. The Athenians, however, returned home and set to work to rebuild the city and the walls.

**Athenian Leadership** It was not until her great achievements in the Persian Wars that Athens came to take a leading position in Greece. Her single-handed defeat of the Persians at Marathon and her naval victory at Salamis gained for her the respect and sometimes the envy of all Greece. The Persian Wars were, in fact, a turning point in Athenian history. The great success stirred the very soul of the Athenian people; and they expressed them-

selves in great art and literature. The average man was proud of his city and eager to take part in its politics. He was also willing to make offerings in money to rebuild the city and to promote its well-being.

The wars had given Athens control of the Aegean Sea, so her merchants traded more extensively than ever. Athens, small and far behind many other Greek cities before the Persian Wars broke out, now rose to great heights, became the greatest of all Greek cities and mistress of the Aegean Sea.

1. How did Athens become involved in war with Persia? Who was the Persian king at the time?
2. Why is the battle of Marathon important?
3. Tell the story of Thermopylae.
4. What part did Themistocles play in the wars?
5. How did the wars affect Athens?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did the Greeks become a seafaring people?
2. Do jealousies and rivalries between nations today react in the same way that they did between the Greek city-states?
3. In what ways did the geography of Greece affect its development?
4. Why was language a unifying force among the Greeks? Is there any evidence that it is such a force in the world today? Explain.
5. How do persons become citizens of the United States today? How does that differ from the requirements in Athens and Sparta?
6. What evils do you see in the Spartan system of government?
7. Are there governments in the world today where the people live for the benefit of the state as they did in ancient Sparta?



8. The importance of a battle is not dependent upon the size of the battle, but upon the effects it has upon the history of the nations involved. Why is the Battle of Marathon counted one of the most important battles in history?

9. What did George William Curtis mean when he wrote in *A Call of Freedom*, "Every great crisis of human history is a pass of Thermopylae and there is always a Leonidas and his 300 to die in it, if they can not conquer"?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

• Assembly • "barbarians" • Council of Five Hundred • Hellas • Hellenes • helots • monarchy • oligarchy • peers •

2. Do you know your dates?

2000 B.C. • 750-500 B.C. • 490 B.C. • 1200-1000 B.C. • 621 B.C. • 479 B.C. •

3. Places to locate on the map:

• Aegean Sea • Athens • Attica • Bay of Salamis • Black Sea • Corinth • Crete • Euboea • Gulf of Corinth • Hellespont • Marathon • Marseilles • Mediterranean Sea • Mt. Olympus • Peloponnesus • Salamis • Sicily • Sparta • Syracuse • Thermopylae •

4. Can you identify these persons?

• Cleisthenes • Draco • Leonidas • Lycurgus • Miltiades • Solon • Themistocles • Xerxes •

5. Can you identify these deities?

• Athena • Zeus •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Give a floor talk on one of the following topics:

• Greek bards • Greek gods • Oracle at Delphi • Homer • Why the Greeks won the Battle of Marathon •

2. Write such an editorial as might have been written, had there been newspapers, the day after Solon's reforms were put into effect.

3. Write a brief explanation of the origin and present meaning of each of the words in italics. Consult your dictionary for help.

The *solons* in Washington are debating a new tax proposal.

For his bad manners he was *ostracised* by his fellow students.

He is regarded as an *oracle* in his community. His actions are those of a *barbarian*.

The athletes participated in a *marathon* race.

### III. At the Blackboard

Write on the blackboard a menu for a luncheon such as would have been served in the home of a Greek peasant in 500 B.C. Beside it write the menu of a luncheon to be served in your school cafeteria the day of this lesson. Have your domestic science teacher help you check the food value of each as to vitamins and calories. Put this information on the board also.

### IV. Class Committee Work

Appoint committees for the following:

1. Write a dialogue between:

a. Solon and a nobleman who feared his reforms.

b. Draco and a peasant who thought his laws were too harsh.

c. Themistocles and the Persian king whom he served years after the Battle of Salamis.

d. Two Athenians who met on the street the day after the Battle of Marathon.

e. Xerxes and his wife upon his return from Greece.

f. Cleisthenes and a Greek slave who has been freed from slavery for debt.

2. Two girls working together to make and model a Greek dress.

3. Make a model of a Greek trireme such as was used in the Athenian navy.



## We Owe a Debt to the Greeks

A few years after the Persian Wars, Pericles (pĕr'ī clēz) became the leader, or political boss, of Athens. By the time of Pericles (460-429 B.C.) Athens had progressed by slow steps from a monarchy through an oligarchy to democracy. Yet the Athenian government was very different from any modern democracy.

### ATHENS WAS A PURE DEMOCRACY

Athens was a small nation and all inhabitants who were citizens could take a direct part in the government instead of governing through their elected representatives, as we in America do. Therefore, the Athenian Assembly was made up of all the citizens, making Athens a *pure democracy*, although of course they did not call it that. The Assembly had the final decision in matters of treaties, peace, and war. It debated and voted on bills presented by the Council of Five Hundred. The Council prepared the bills that were sent to the Assembly and saw that the laws were carried out.

But the "catch" in Athenian democracy was that only native-born men could be citizens. In Attica there was a population of about 315,000. Of that number about 172,000 were free citizens, including women and children who could not vote.

There were also 115,000 slaves and 28,000 foreigners who could not vote. Therefore the number of voting citizens was small. Nevertheless, Athens gave mankind a big boost in the climb toward freedom. Athenian democracy was the first experiment the world had seen in self-government. There has never been a democracy since in which so many citizens have been so active in the affairs of the state.

One of the most interesting features of the Athenian government was the system of juries. The members were elected by lot for a term of one year. The juries were large, usually five hundred or more, so that they could not be bribed or threatened to pass false judgments. There were no judges and no lawyers, each citizen pleading his own case. Citizens often had lawyers to write their speeches for them, however.

### THE GOLDEN AGE OF GREECE

During the period known as the Age of Pericles, Athens was at the height of her greatness. This was due in large measure to the statesmanship and wisdom of one man, Pericles. First, this wise leader saw that Athens had to be protected against possible enemies. So he fortified the city by building two parallel walls reaching from Athens to her port at Piraeus (pī rē'ūs), five miles



*The ruins of the Acropolis reflect its original beauty and grandeur. The largest building is the Parthenon. It was made of Greek marble, a material well suited for its delicate carvings.*

away. These Long Walls connected with the wall around the city itself. Thus Athens could always bring in through this corridor the food that would be needed for her population, so long as her navy protected the port. The docks at Piraeus were busy places. Here merchants from nearly every country brought their goods, and from here Athens sent out her merchandise around the Mediterranean world.

The Persian Wars had left Athens in ruins. Pericles rebuilt the public buildings in a manner in keeping with Athens' new power and influence. On the Acropolis (ă crŏp'ŏ līs), which was the hill two hundred feet high in the center of the city, new and stately temples arose. These magnificent shrines not only honored the goddess Athena, whom the Greeks credited with saving the city from the Persians, but gave the city a beauty unknown anywhere in the Greek world.

The agora (ăg'ŏ rā), or market place, of Athens was a busy place, too. Here most of the supplies for the Athenian homes

were bought. Here the men gathered under the beautiful plane and poplar trees to walk and talk, while the merchants displayed their wares in booths set up each morning. There were fish merchants, women selling bread and vegetables, farmers with goats' milk and wine, girls selling flowers. Men came to buy the family supplies, but they stayed to discuss the latest temple being built, or the next play to be given, or the new turn in political affairs. News of the city and the outside world was passed on by word of mouth from one man to another.

Pericles was interested that Athens be more than a wealthy commercial city. The most gifted architects and sculptors were employed on new buildings for the city. A theater was built where dramatists could see their own plays produced. Pericles wanted Athens to be an intellectual city, too. He was a friend of the thinkers of his day. Under the guiding hand of Athens' greatest statesman the city became the "school of Hellas." In his speeches Pericles held up lofty ideals of citizenship for the



Athenians, saying that a man who took no interest in public affairs was useless. Pericles achieved many things for Athens, but at the end of his life he said that he was proudest of the fact that no one had had to put on mourning because of him.

1. Describe the democratic government in the Age of Pericles.
2. What was the position of foreigners living in Athens?
3. How large was Athens? Into what groups was its population divided?
4. Describe the jury system.
5. Why did Pericles build the Long Walls?
6. Describe a scene at the agora.
7. Why is the Age of Pericles called the Golden Age of Athens?

#### EDUCATION DIFFERED WIDELY IN SPARTA AND ATHENS

**Spartan Education** The political systems of Sparta and Athens were radically different, and so were the processes by which the children of the two states were trained to take part in the affairs of their cities. In Sparta all the training was designed to develop a person whose life was controlled by the state, and who would work in a group. In Athens, on the other hand, the *individual* was stressed.

When a Spartan child was born, if physically fit he was allowed to live. If not, he was exposed on the mountainside to be devoured by wild animals or picked up to be brought up as a slave. The healthy boy was in the charge of his mother until he was seven. Spartan women were vigorous and courageous and trained their sons to be likewise. Their advice to their sons going to battle was, "Come back carrying your shield, or on it."

At the age of seven the boy was turned over to the state to be educated with other boys in a group. They had little "book learning," though some of them could read, write, and recite parts of Homer. Their training was chiefly physical, to make them good soldiers. They were drilled, they engaged in sports, and learned to forage so that they could get their own food by stealing it if necessary. They wore scanty clothing, ate the simplest food, slept on piles of reeds out of doors, and in every way were trained to suffer hardships. Once a year they were subjected to a severe flogging to learn to endure pain. While the boys were going through this rigorous training, the girls were being trained at home by their mothers, but they had physical training, too, to make them strong.

At the age of twenty a boy's education was over and he joined a mess-club with about fifteen others. They lived together in barracks and remained soldiers until they were sixty years old.

**Athenian Education** Athenian education had a different objective. It aimed at producing a "perfect mind in a perfect body." At the age of seven, the Athenian boy was sent to school, accompanied by a slave called a pedagogue (pěd'-ă gŏg), who carried the boy's books and watched his conduct. The schools were private, run by a poor citizen to whom the Athenians paid little respect. The tuition was small, but even so, the teachers often had difficulty in collecting it from the parents.

In the elementary school the boy was taught to read, to write on a wax tablet with a metal stylus, and to do an awkward kind of arithmetic in which letters were used as figures. Music was an important



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*In this ancient Greek school the instructor is playing the lyre while he recites poetry.*

subject, and the lyre was the most popular instrument. The most important subject, however, was public speaking. An educated Athenian could recite from memory long passages of the *Iliad* and *Odyssey*, the great poems of their poet, Homer, besides much of the literature of later writers. Physical training included boxing, wrestling, drilling, and other games.

At the age of about fourteen the poorer boys became apprentices to learn some craft, while the richer boys went on to grammar school. There had developed in Athens a great desire for knowledge; and a group of traveling teachers who claimed they could satisfy that desire grew up in

*The ancient Greeks had some characteristics of modern Americans. They enjoyed meeting with their friends at festive occasions. They also liked to give an individual the opportunity to cultivate his best qualities.*

Athens. They were called sophists (sōf-ists), which in Greek meant *one who is wise*. They were very popular among the youths. The subjects they taught included mathematics, astronomy, grammar, and literature. But the chief subject was oratory. Since Athenian political life gave an opportunity for public speaking, boys were eager to be trained for it. The sophists filled a need in Greek life. It was their teaching that encouraged the first successful Greek prose. But later sophists used practices in their teachings which were none too honest. Besides, they had come to doubt the existence of the old Greek deities, and the parents felt that their teachings undermined the morals of their sons. The older people generally did not approve of the sophists.

At the age of about eighteen the Athenian boy's schooling was ended for he had to have his military training. When that began he was made a citizen by taking an oath of loyalty to Athens.

## HOMES AND HOME LIFE

**Homes** The brick houses of the Greeks were very simple, though they varied in size according to the size and wealth of the family. From the outside



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they were unattractive, and they had no openings except doors. The rooms opened off a central court. All the light in the room came through the open doors leading off this court. Much of the household work, such as spinning and weaving, was done here. The furnishings consisted only of couches, tables, and benches. These, however, were often carved and inlaid and had very beautiful lines. Houses were not heated except by charcoal burning braziers, which could be moved from room to room. There were no wood floors in the house.

With the exception of the Spartan women, Greek women kept very much in the background. This did not mean that women were unimportant in Greek life. They managed their own homes and had great influence upon their families.

The wealthy men of Athens did not work. After rising at sunrise and eating a breakfast of bread dipped in wine, the Athenian went to make early morning calls on his friends and to the barber shop, where he picked up news and gossip. From here the citizen would go to the agora to do the daily shopping. By this time it was near sunset and time to go home for the chief meal of the day.

If there were no guests, the family ate together, but often the man would ask friends to accompany him home. In that case, the women never ate with the men. The Greeks reclined on couches as they ate bread, fish, eggs, cheese, and vegetables such as peas, onions, radishes, or turnips. Most food was heavily soaked in olive oil. The main part of the meal was followed by nuts, fruits, cakes, olives, and wine. Then, over the wine glasses, came a lively discussion of politics, art, poetry, and drama. This part of the meal was the *symposium*. It often lasted far into the night.

The poor man's life was very different from this. He spent more time at his work than his wealthy neighbor, but all Greeks, even the poor, valued their leisure and spent as much time as they could in the society of other citizens. Of course the poor family's meals were simple, but the three staple foods of all Greeks seem to have been bread, olive oil, and wine.



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*A busy shoemaker's shop is pictured on this vase. What do you learn about Greek apparel from this design?*

## RELIGION INFLUENCED RECREATION

**Olympic Games** Recreation in Greece was often associated with religion. The most important of all the festivals were the Olympic games, begun in 776 B.C. and held every four years at Olympia in honor of the gods. Because they were held so regularly century after century, the Olympic games became the basis of an all-Greek chronology. Events were remembered according to the "olympiad" in which they occurred. The games, which lasted five days, were held in late summer. This was a truly national event and thousands of people from all parts of Greece attended. Merchants brought their wares to sell at the fairs held in connection with the games, poets recited their poems,





Metropolitan Museum of Art

*The Greeks often depicted athletes on their vases. Notice the rhythm of the figures and the beauty of design.*

and singers sang their songs. Heralds proclaimed important events that had taken place since the last games were held. It was a great gathering in which Greeks of all cities learned to know each other as they enjoyed the performances together.

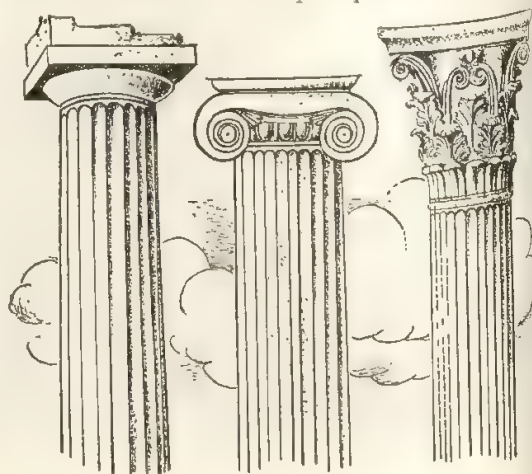
There were various kinds of foot races, chariot races, boxing, wrestling, and discus throwing at Olympia. The prize for each event was a wreath of olive cut with a golden knife from a sacred olive tree. The herald read the names of the winners, the names of their fathers, and of their cities. Then the wreath was placed upon each winner's head. The visitors were feasted, poets read verses in their praise, and often sculptors made statues of them.

1. What was the purpose of education in Sparta? in Athens?
2. Describe the training of a Spartan youth.
3. Describe the education of an Athenian youth.
4. Who were the sophists?
5. Describe a typical Greek house.
6. Describe the day of a wealthy Athenian man.
7. What was the position of women in Athens? in Sparta?
8. Describe the Olympic games.
9. Of what importance were the Olympic games in Greece?

## GREEK ARCHITECTS DESIGNED BEAUTIFUL BUILDINGS

**Types of Architecture** The Greeks were an imaginative and artistic people. Only the Spartans spent all their efforts in training for war. Other Greeks contributed much to the artistic achievements of the world, but Athens led them all. Not only did she produce beautiful pottery, but her architecture was among the most perfect in style that the world has ever seen.

*The three columns used in Greek architecture: Doric, Ionic, and Corinthian. These were adapted by the Romans.*



The Greeks thought that beauty could best be achieved through simplicity and good proportions. All Greek buildings had the same general plan. They were distinguished by three types of columns. The Doric type had a thick shaft and a square capital; the Ionic (ĩ ōn'ic) had a more slender shaft and a capital of two graceful scrolls; and the Corinthian (kō rĩn'thĩ ān) had a slender shaft with a capital highly decorated with leaf designs. The Greeks liked the sturdy, massive and dignified Doric the best. Their greatest temple, the Parthenon, was of this type.

**The Acropolis** The Acropolis of Athens was the site of the greatest Greek buildings, all in honor of Athena. One of these, the Parthenon, is perhaps the most famous building in the world. It is made of creamy white marble that the Athenians had close at hand. It was made more beautiful by a frieze running around the outer wall under the porch. Sculpture above the pillars represented the Athenians as they walked or rode in a religious procession. The gable ends above the columns were filled with statues of gods and goddesses. All the statues were delicately tinted with gold, blue, and red. Rising as it did against the blue Greek sky, the Parthenon was a most impressive sight.

## GREEK SCULPTURE

**Myron** Along with architecture the Greeks excelled in sculpture. No greater sculpture has ever been produced. The names of three sculptors stand out above all the rest. The first was Myron (mĩ'rōn), the man who gave the world the *Discobolus* (dis kōb'ō lūs) or *Discus Thrower*.

**Phidias** The second was Phidias (fid'ĩ ās) who is considered the greatest of the three. His work on the Parthenon, though now badly mutilated, had held the attention of the whole civilized world. Although most of the work of Phidias has been destroyed through the centuries, its inspiration lives on.

**Praxiteles** In the fourth century B.C. the greatest sculptor was Praxiteles (prax'it'ē lēz). The old dignity and stiffness that marked the statues of the gods by Phidias was gone. The work of Praxiteles showed more grace and lifelike qualities than that of earlier sculptors.

1. Describe the Acropolis.
2. Describe a typical Greek building.
3. What were the three types of Greek columns? How did they differ?
4. Describe the Parthenon.
5. Who were the three chief sculptors of Greece? Name one work of each.

## GREEK LITERATURE PICTURED GREEK LIFE

**History** The Greeks produced famous literature, too. We have seen that in the days of the kings, Homer's *Iliad* and *Odyssey* set a high standard of writing. While Homer was not a historian, it is from his works that we learn much about the early Greeks.

The first Greek historian was Herodotus (hē rōd'ō tūs), often called the "Father of History." He traveled widely and used the knowledge he picked up on his travels in his writings. In his history of the Persian Wars he showed that events occurred as they did because it was the will of the gods that they should. A later historian, Thucyd-

ides (thōō cīd'ī dēz) (471-400 B.C.), wrote more scientific history. His account of the Peloponnesian Wars is important to us.

**First Woman Poet** The first woman poet of whom we have any account was a Greek named Sappho (säf'fo). Unfortunately only a few fragments of her works have come down to us, but those show that she was a poet of great ability. Among the ancient Greeks her fame rivaled that of Homer and she was called "the poetess" as he was called "the poet."

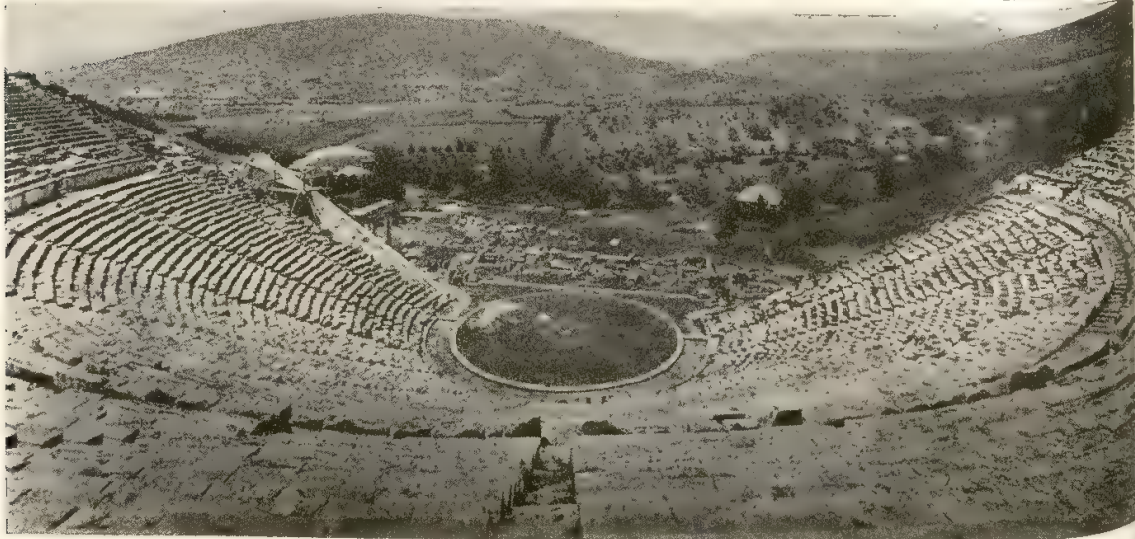
**Theater** The greatest poets were writers of tragedy. The tragedies were performed each year as a part of religious festivals to the god Dionysus (dī ð nī'sūs). In the early plays a chorus chanted the story while an actor performed part of it. Then two actors were used and finally three. As the number of actors increased they took over the recitation of the story and left to the chorus the task of establishing the spirit of the play with beautiful songs and hymns.

*What has modern America borrowed from ancient Greek architecture? This theatre was designed by Polyclitus, a sculptor and architect. Here the Greeks gathered to watch performances of the great dramas.*

The playwrights presented their plays in turn. The tragedies were given in the morning and the comedies in the afternoon. Prizes were awarded for the best plays at the end of a three-day festival. The audience was critical and let its approval or disapproval be known by boisterous shouts which left no doubt in the author's mind as to what they thought of his play.

**Writers of Tragedies** The three most important writers were Aeschylus (ēs'kī lus), Sophocles (sōf ð clēz), and Euripides (ū rīp'ī dēz). Aeschylus (525-456 B.C.), who is regarded as the founder of Greek drama, had two characters and the chorus in his plays. He wrote of gods and mythical characters. Sophocles (496-406 B.C.) added a third actor and his tragic poems are expressed in superbly beautiful language. Both these men showed in their works that they believed that the gods ruled their destinies. Later Euripides (480-406 B.C.) showed the doubt in the gods that had spread through Greece. His plays were seldom awarded the prize by the

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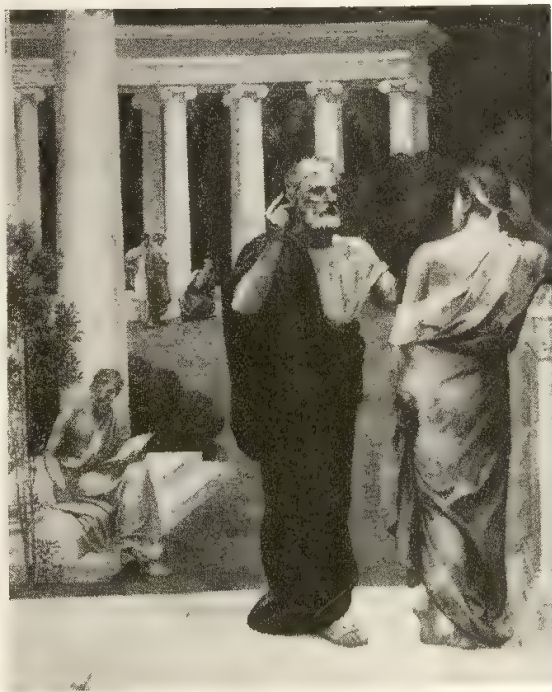
judges. The older Athenians who awarded the prizes did not like to see the religious basis on which they had built torn down. The plays were popular with the young people, however.

**Writers of Comedy** The youngest of the great Greek dramatists was a writer of comedy, Aristophanes (ăr is-tŏf'ăn ěz) (448–380 B.C.). He poked fun at the politicians and other important characters of his day. Even Pericles and the philosopher Socrates (sŏc'ra tĕs) did not escape him. In the comedies the weaknesses of the government were discussed, opening the eyes of many citizens to these things. He compared the Greeks of his day with those who had fought in the Persian Wars, pointing out that some of the old virtues had been lost.

## GREEK THINKERS DISCOVER GREAT TRUTHS

**Socrates** During the Age of Pericles there lived in Athens one of the most outstanding teachers of all times, Socrates. He was not a paid instructor, but he stood on the streets or in the market place asking questions that made men think about the things they had always taken for granted. He preferred to call himself a philosopher—a searcher after truth—rather than a sophist—a wise man. He asked such questions as, what is love? what is beauty? what is truth? He questioned everything that people had accepted including their religion, though he himself worshipped the gods. The people of Athens turned against him and had him tried for teaching the youth what they believed to be false principles. He was condemned to die by drinking hemlock. His friends and pupils tried

to persuade him to flee from Athens and escape the penalty as he might easily have done. He refused, saying that he had taught people how to live and now he was going to teach them how to die.



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*Plato left his fortune to the Academy. It continued as an educational institution for over 800 years.*

**Plato** Among Socrates' students the most noted is Plato (427–347 B.C.). It is chiefly through Plato's works that we know about Socrates for he left no writings himself. Plato, on the other hand, wrote many works. Among them the best known is *The Republic*. Plato was disgusted with Athenian democracy because Athens had condemned Socrates. In *The Republic* he pictured an ideal state in which the government is run by the highly educated philosophers. In his home on the edge of Athens he founded a school called the Academy. Pupils from all over Greece

came to hear his lectures and to carry back the wisdom of his teachings.

**Aristotle** Plato's most famous pupil was Aristotle (ăr'is tōt'l) (384-322 B.C.) who gathered knowledge along many lines and wrote it down in a systematic fashion. He was especially interested in the study of nature. Like Plato, Aristotle founded a school called the Lyceum to which pupils came in great numbers. While we would not agree with the details of Aristotle's scientific information today, his writings are still studied for his clear thinking.

**Medicine** Among the wise men of Greece was the physician, Hippocrates (hī pōk'ră tēz) (460-357 B.C.). He believed that diseases came from natural causes rather than from the anger of the gods. He discovered that the brain is the organ of thought and through his investigation he learned to diagnose several diseases. Hippocrates tried to deal with illness by recommending rules for health and hygiene. He believed that nature provided its own cures in the form of sunshine, fresh air, and rest. Hippocrates formulated an oath pledging doctors to be honest and honorable in their work. This oath is repeated by medical graduates today.

**Greek Achievements** The Greeks wrote a new chapter in the world's history. They had inherited much from the past. From the Stone Ages they learned the use of fire, language, agriculture, weaving, painting and carving, the bow and arrow, the domesticating of animals, and the making of pottery. Later peoples passed on their experiences in government, the use of copper, bronze, gold, and iron, the use

of coinage, the calendar, shipbuilding, and architecture. The older civilizations in the time of the early Greeks were devoted to the past. They found it hard to break with their past and start on a new and untried path. Not so the Greeks. They had no such reverence for what had been accomplished; the achievements had not been theirs. They chose what they liked and discarded the rest. They built upon the past, but were not bound by it. Their eyes were set upon the future and a new age dawned in the world's history, a new age that dawned in Europe, not in the Ancient Orient.

Building upon the past, the Greeks took giant steps forward along many lines. The Greeks, and especially Athens, left to the world some of the best works in architecture, poetry, drama, and sculpture that the world has ever produced. Their philosophy and science form the foundation upon which others have since built. No other people have taken more important steps forward in culture than the ancient Greeks. When we think of the smallness of their population as compared to that of most great modern countries, the amount and the quality of their artistic works and the brilliance of their thinkers seem all the more amazing.

1. Who were the two greatest Greek historians and what did each write?
2. What was the origin of Greek drama?
3. How was a Greek play presented?
4. Describe the Greek theater.
5. Who were the chief dramatists among the Greeks and what type of play did each produce?
6. Why is Socrates considered one of the greatest teachers in the world's history?
7. Who was Plato?
8. Why is Hippocrates of such importance in the history of medicine?



Gramstorff Bros.

*When the Greek oracle was asked who was the wisest man in Greece, its reply was, Socrates. Today, the world agrees, but Socrates was compelled to die because he asked men to think.*

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How did Athenian democracy differ from democracy in the United States today? In what ways was it like American democracy?

2. Did the Athenians gain or lose by giving citizenship to native-born men alone?

3. Do you think that education in Athens and in Sparta really trained the boys and girls for citizenship in their respective states under their types of government? Does your education train you for American citizenship?

4. The Athenian boy assumed his citizenship duties at the age of eighteen. In all but one of the states of the United States the voting age is twenty-one. At what age do you think persons in the United States should be given the ballot?

5. Why did Athenian women exert so much influence despite the fact that they were almost never out in public?

6. In what respects do you think that Pericles was a great statesman?

7. How might the Olympic games be a means toward international understanding today?

8. Why do so many debating societies call

themselves "Agora"?

9. How do you account for the fact that there were so many great artists and thinkers among the small population of Athens?

10. In what ways was the drama of educational value?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

· Acropolis · Agora · Corinthian pillar · democracy · Doric pillar · "Father of History" · Ionic pillar · "Long Walls" · mess-club · *Odyssey* · pedagogue · philosopher · pure democracy · sophist · symposium ·

2. Do you know your dates?

460-429 B.C.

3. Can you identify these persons?

Aeschylus · Aristophanes · Aristotle · Euripides · Herodotus · Hippocrates · Homer · Myron · Pericles · Phidias · Plato · Praxiteles · Sappho · Socrates · Sophocles · Thucydides ·



## II. History Related to Civics

1. Take a poll of your class, your home room, or your school to find what they think the voting age should be in your state.

2. List on the blackboard for class discussion ten qualities necessary for good citizenship.

3. The ancient Greeks paid no taxes. Instead, persons made gifts to the government for specific worthy causes. List as many reasons as you can supporting our tax system as opposed to the ancient Greek system.

4. Divide a sheet of paper in two columns. In the first column write what you consider the advantages of a pure democracy and in the second column the advantages of a representative democracy.

## III. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. There are many topics suggested by this chapter that you would find of interest. Select one and report to the class. The following are suggested:

• Spartan education • Athenian education • modern Olympics • home life of the Athenians • the Hippocratic oath • food in ancient Athens •

2. Conduct a debate on the topic, Resolved: that American democracy is superior to Athenian Democracy.

3. Find clear pictures of Greek pottery or Greek design and explain them to the class.

4. Write a three-day diary of a Greek boy taking part in the Olympic games. You will find information in books on early Greek life.

## IV. History in Literature

A modern poet, Edwin Markham, wrote a poem to Phidias. Secure a copy and read it to the class.

## V. A Community Project

Take snap-shots of buildings in your community that have Greek characteristics. Label each to call attention to the Greek features. If there are none in your community, find pictures of such modern buildings elsewhere.

## VI. Dramatization

Dramatize a scene in the agora of Athens in 400 B.C.

## VII. Group Assignments

1. Make a model of the Parthenon. Dimensions for it can be found in an encyclopedia or in some books on architecture.

2. If you enjoy working in clay, make a copy of one of the famous Greek statues or a model of each of the three types of pillars used by the Greeks.

3. Draw the floor plan of a typical Athenian home. Pin it on the bulletin board.

4. Make a diagram of the Acropolis and the important buildings on it.

## VIII. Picture Study

1. What is the most conspicuous feature of the temples on the Acropolis as shown on page 90?

2. Point out the artistic features of the Greek vase pictured on page 94.

3. In the picture on page 99 who might one of the young men be who is listenly so intently to Socrates?

## Foreign Leaders Spread Hellenistic Culture



**A**lthough the wars between the Greeks and Persians were ended, the Greeks of the coast of Asia Minor were still threatened by Persia. To free them from this threat, a League was formed by most of the cities bordering the Aegean Sea. Athens was at its head. It was called the Delian League because the treasury was in the Temple of Apollo on the Island of Delos (dē'lōs). Members of the League contributed to the treasury according to their wealth. The League maintained a fleet in the port of Athens for the protection of all the member cities.

As years passed, it became clear that the Persian threat was over. Many of the cities then wanted to withdraw from the League, for Athens had already been meddling in their internal affairs, contrary to their wishes. But Athens forced these cities to continue their membership and to pay her tribute in money or ships. The League was thus gradually transformed into an empire, the Athenian Empire.

Greek cities renewed their quarrels among themselves. Sparta, the chief city of the Peloponnesus, and Athens had opposing ideas, as we have seen. With the growth of Athen's powerful navy and then of her empire, Sparta became more and more jealous until in 431 B.C. war broke out between the two city-states.

*This statue was made nearly 2500 years ago. Even in mutilated form it shows the remarkable skill of the sculptor.*

Metropolitan Museum of Art



### ATHENS LOSES HER LEADERSHIP

**Peloponnesian Wars** Upon achieving safety from the Persians, the

Pericles made a plan of action. The Athenians, at his proposal, all moved within the city or between the Long Walls for protection, letting the enemy overrun Attica. So long as the Athenian navy protected the port of Piraeus, Athens could get food. The Athenian navy also harried the coast of the Peloponnesus.

The plan did not work well, however. A plague broke out in the crowded and unsanitary city. People died by the hundreds, among them the great Pericles himself. There was no other man of like ability to lead Athens. It was hard for the farmers to watch the enemy destroy their fields in Attica while nothing was done to protect them. In the bitter fighting, hundreds of the most promising young men on both sides died. Finally a treaty was signed, but it proved to be only a truce and war broke out again. By the time the Peloponnesian Wars, as they were called, were over, Athens was defeated and humiliated. According to the terms of the treaty imposed upon her she had to tear down her Long Walls, give up all her fleet except twelve

warships, and enter a League, this time with Sparta at its head. This tragic end of Athenian supremacy came in 404 B.C., but even then wars between the city-states did not cease. Sparta placed a small group of men, the oligarchs, in each town to rule. Their rule was tyrannical. They even confiscated peoples' property and banished any whom they distrusted. The Greeks decided that Spartan tyranny was worse than Athenian policy.

Revolts led by the city of Thebes ended in the collapse of Spartan domination in 371 B.C. Thebes then imposed its rule on the fallen Spartan empire. But in less than ten years (362 B.C.) the Theban domination was also overthrown. After that, no city-state could muster enough strength to unite or master the rest of Greece.

The chronic wars exhausted the Greeks and diminished their manpower, until in 338 B.C. Philip, the king of the still uncultured Macedonians (mă's t dōn'ī āns) north of Greece moved in and easily conquered them. Rivalry among themselves had led to the downfall of the Greeks.

*The Greeks looked upon Alexander as a youthful prince who had had little opportunity to prove his ability. But the young prince marched triumphantly across the Near East and on to India.*





1. How did Athens build her empire? Of what did it consist?
2. How did Pericles plan to defend Athens and fight the Spartans?
3. How did the Peloponnesian Wars affect Athens? Sparta?
4. What part did Thebes play in the civil strife following the Peloponnesian Wars.
5. What effect did the long period of civil war have upon the Greeks.

## A FOREIGNER BECOMES LEADER OF THE GREEKS

**Philip of Macedon** The wars between the Greek city-states had weakened them, but they were weakened, too, by a new spirit that was creeping into Greece. Many Greeks had come to feel that the fights between the cities were senseless. They felt so strongly that disunity among the Greeks should be ended that when a leader appeared upon the scene, even though he was a Macedonian, there were Greeks to welcome him.

Philip of Macedon had been living in Thebes for three years when he went home at the age of eighteen to rule his backward country. In a short time he had built up a fine army and united the tribesmen. His plan was to add Greece to his domain. He hoped to get Athens, at least, to welcome his leadership, for he appreciated her greatness and did not want to fight her. In Athens, however, the great orator Demosthenes (dē mōs'thē nēz) whipped up public sentiment against Philip, despite the strong party there that wanted Macedonian leadership. Demosthenes was a superb orator and in his famous speeches, the *Philippics* (fī līp'ics), he spoke out forcefully against the aggression of Philip and tried to awaken the people of Athens to their danger.

When the Athenians did not willingly give in to him, Philip marched against them. Athens put herself at the head of a Greek federation, but her armies were no match for Philip's well-trained soldiers. In 338 B.C., at Chaeronea (kēr ō nē'a), the Greek federation was defeated and forced to form an Hellenic League with Philip as commander-in-chief. Then the king returned to Macedonia to prepare a campaign against Persia. His death at the hands of an assassin cut short his plans.

**Alexander the Great** Philip's son, Alexander, then a boy of twenty, succeeded to the throne. He had been educated by the great philosopher, Aristotle. His teachings made a profound impression upon the young Alexander, for Alexander admired Greek culture and posed as a Greek leader. But because of Alexander's youth the Greeks thought they saw their opportunity to throw off the Macedonian rule. Alexander's answer was to march against Thebes with unexpected swiftness. In two days the city was levelled to the ground; and yet not quite so, for Alexander out of respect for Greek culture ordered that the house of Pindar (pīn'dar) the poet should be left standing. The other cities, fearing a similar disaster, gave in. Alexander, like his father, returned to Macedonia to prepare for the invasion of Persia.

This invasion is one of the great and daring military feats in history. With thirty or forty thousand soldiers, Alexander invaded the Persian Empire, marched south through Asia Minor, Syria, and into Egypt, where there was much displeasure with the Persian rule. He won all the battles against the Persian king and cut off the bases of the Phoenician fleet, which was under Persian control. He proclaimed him-



Historical Pictures Service

*Issus has been the scene of three historic battles. Alexander the Great defeated Darius here in 333 B.C.*

self the son of a god and built the city of Alexandria at the mouth of the Nile River to be a center of Hellenic commerce and culture. Returning to Syria, he again defeated the great Persian army and took over the vast empire. Not satisfied, he pushed eastward into India, conquering its northwest. His Macedonian and Greek soldiers, however, found the climate very disagreeable and began to complain so much that Alexander was forced to give up his dream of possessing the vast wealth of India. Sending part of his army home by sea, he returned through southern Persia to Susa, where he plotted still further conquests. Before these could be carried out, he died. In thirteen years Alexander had restored Greece to Macedonian rule and conquered the two-century-old Persian Empire, which was the largest empire the world had yet seen.

Soon after his death, Alexander's vast empire fell into three parts, each ruled by a line of Macedonians, the descendants of Alexander's generals. There were the

European part, the Asiatic part, and the Egyptian. The most noted dynasty set up was the Ptolemy (töl' ē mē) in Egypt.

While the empire Alexander had built through conquest soon passed away, there were other results of his work that were more lasting. The most important of them was the mingling of Greek and Persian cultures. Wherever Alexander went, he introduced Greek civilization. About seventy cities were established along his route of travel, all having Greek colonists. As he went on, Alexander and his soldiers adopted some Persian culture themselves. This mingling of the Greeks and the Orientals and of their cultures brought about a new era, the era of Hellenistic culture that lasted for about three hundred years after the death of Alexander. Greek civilization had burst the narrow bounds of the city-states and had been made a part of the culture of the entire civilized world.

1. What conditions in Greece made it easy for her to be conquered?

2. Why was Philip unable to add Greece to his kingdom by peaceful means?
3. What was Alexander's attitude toward Greece? Why did he have that attitude?
4. Trace Alexander's line of march.
5. What happened to Alexander's empire after his death?
6. What was the chief effect of Alexander's conquests?

## THE HELLENISTIC AGE, AN AGE OF CONTRASTS

**Language** Power had passed from the splendid cities of Athens, Sparta, and Thebes; yet the influence of these Greek city-states was felt throughout the Eastern Mediterranean world. All the rulers spoke Greek, and this was the language of business in the ports from Sicily to Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt. The educated people read the drama, poetry, philosophy, and history of the great men of Athens. Thus the Greek language was a unifying force in the eastern Mediterranean.

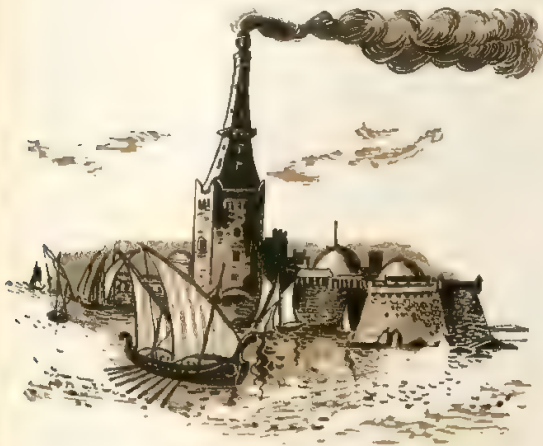
**Alexandria** As the Greek cities declined in economic and political importance, other cities took the lead. Alex-

andria in Egypt and Antioch in Syria became trade rivals as well as centers of learning. Egypt rose to power under the Ptolemies, with Alexandria as her capital. The new line of Pharaohs, who considered themselves Greeks, favored Greek business men, who gained control of banking, commerce, and manufacturing, and even held large estates in Egypt. They increased the wealth of the country and made Alexandria the chief financial center of the whole Hellenistic world.

The transplanted Greek culture, which was now fused with the Oriental, took on new and vigorous development. The Ptolemies encouraged its growth in Egypt. A very excellent school, the Museum, was founded in the king's palace at Alexandria. Here students from all over the civilized world came to listen to lectures in astronomy, anatomy, grammar, rhetoric, mathematics, physics, and literature. The Ptolemies also supported a library connected with it where an army of scribes was kept busy making copies of the literature of the past, especially Greek literature.

Special attention was paid at the Museum to the natural sciences. Experiments in many different fields were carried on by scholars. The geographers made maps using latitude and longitude. The greatest of these geographers, Eratosthenes (*ēr a-tōs'thē nēz*), knew that the world was round and estimated its circumference to be 25,000 miles. He was only about 50 miles in error. Euclid (*ū'klīd*), using the Greek knowledge of geometry as a basis, gave the world such a complete system of geometry that it has had few changes since. Aristarchus (*ār is-tār'kūs*), in the third century B.C., tried to persuade other scholars that the sun and not the earth was the center of the universe and that all the planets moved around it.

*The lighthouse at Alexandria, the Pharos, was one of the Seven Wonders of the Ancient World.*





**Archimedes** One of the greatest scientists of the day lived at Syracuse in Sicily. He was Archimedes (är kī mē'dēz) (287-212 B.C.), a mathematician and physicist. He studied the screw, lever, and cogged wheel. He used them to invent a machine which, with a series of pulleys, could launch a large ship by merely turning a crank. Archimedes boasted that if the ruler of Syracuse would give him a place to stand, he could move the earth. Archimedes was likewise the greatest of ancient mathematicians, but his theories were lost.



New York Public Library

*Archimedes was killed by a Roman soldier as he sat pondering over some scientific or mathematical theory.*

**Homes** With all this scientific knowledge, it is not surprising that homes of the rich took on an elegance and a convenience that the Athenians of Pericles' day had not dreamed of. They were larger and much more pleasant. Bathrooms were installed and a heating system was used in cool climates. Tile floors of beautiful design took the place of the bare earth. In some of

the houses there were gadgets such as door openers. With increased trade and the establishment of regular schedules for ships between ports, delicacies imported from other places appeared on the tables of the rich.

**Inequalities** There were great inequalities in this Hellenistic world, however. The poor were poorer and more oppressed than the poor of Athens had ever been. The masses could barely manage to survive. They lived in filth and poverty. So the Hellenistic Age was one of great contrasts. There was wealth, luxury, ease, and knowledge on the one hand, and poverty, long hours of labor, slavery and ignorance on the other.

While these great changes had been going on in the eastern Mediterranean world, the little city of Rome on the Tiber River in Italy had been expanding to create an even greater empire than Alexander had had. Before we see how it became the heir of Hellenistic culture, we must turn back to watch its development to a point where it was ready to adopt the art, literature, philosophy, commerce, and luxury of the Hellenistic world.

1. What were the chief cities of the Hellenistic world? For what was each noted?
2. What line of kings ruled Egypt during the Hellenistic Age?
3. Why was this called the Hellenistic Age?
4. What was the Museum?
5. Name the outstanding scientists of the Hellenistic Age.
6. What new knowledge in science and mathematics was gained in the Hellenistic Age?
7. In what ways were homes improved? Did all people have these improvements?

# 3 · Milestones Toward Democracy



The Greeks were interested in *ideas*. They were not afraid to try new forms of government and ways of life, and they moved from monarchy to oligarchy to pure democracy.

Sparta was an oligarchy. Citizenship in that city-state was restricted to the peers. The freemen carried on trade, but they were not citizens. The helots, although not *owned* by their employers, were cruelly treated and were not permitted to leave the farm. Sparta never progressed beyond an oligarchy form of government.



The Athenians tried to form a society in which large numbers of the people would enjoy freedom and equality. This was their great contribution to mankind.



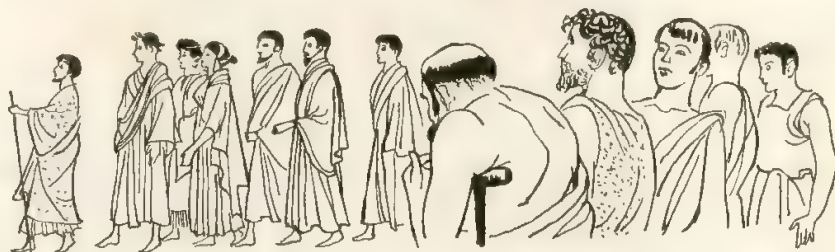
Draco's laws did not do much to promote a better life for the Athenians, but they at least were put down in writing, so that the people could read them.



Solon persuaded the Athenian nobles to adopt laws that gave all the citizens the right to vote, canceled debts which would make slaves of freemen, and otherwise gave liberties to the people.



Under Cleisthenes, the Athenians made their constitution more democratic. The Council of Five Hundred represented the people. The citizens in the Assembly made the laws.



Only native-born men of Athens could be citizens, however. Thousands of people, including slaves, had no voice in their government.

If the Greeks had gone further with their idea of representative government and had extended the privileges of citizenship, democracy would have made much larger gains than it did. But at least the people of ancient Athens had pointed the way.

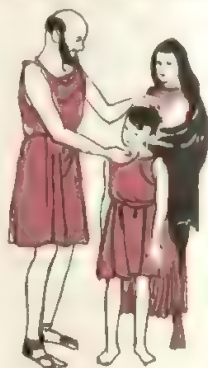
# 3 · Milestones of Living

About three thousand years ago the Greeks came upon the world scene. During the height of their civilization they made such extraordinary contributions to the development of man's way of life that his culture reached new and high levels. Many of their ideas and their skills have never been surpassed. The milestones they set up lead directly to our own way of life.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

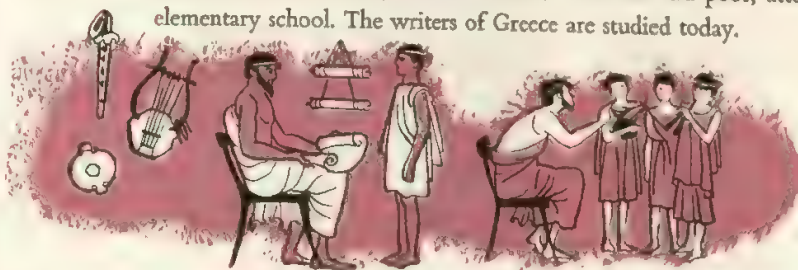


The Greeks were inheritors of all that man had learned up to that time and they built upon that knowledge. The great scientists, Hippocrates, Archimedes, Euclid, and others, were the forerunners of the scientific age in which we live.



## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

The Greeks were interested in new ideas and in everything that went on in the world. The youth of Athens, both rich and poor, attended elementary school. The writers of Greece are studied today.



## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In what way might the Delian League be considered a forerunner of the United Nations?
2. What was wrong with Pericles' plan for the defense of Athens?
3. Athens stood for ideas, while Sparta stood for force. Which proved to be the stronger in the long run?
4. What lessons should mankind learn from

the wars among the Greek city-states?

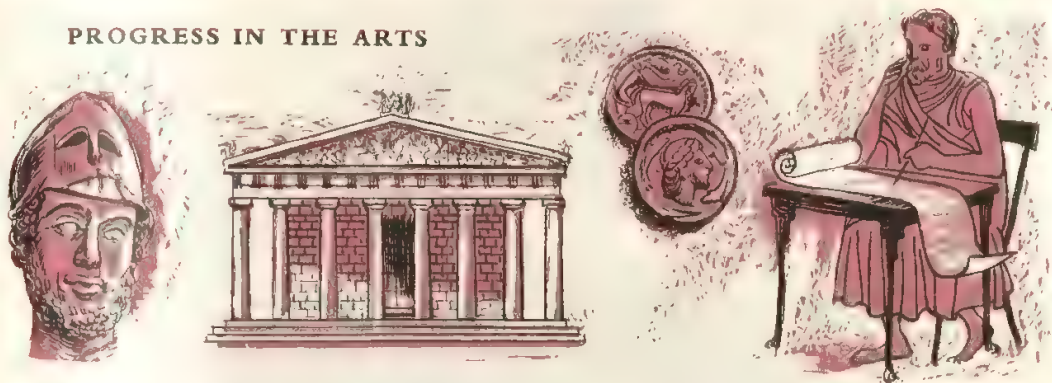
5. It has been said that the Hellenistic Age was much like the age in which we live. In what respects is that true?

6. Before Philip moved against the Greeks he made sure that he had a pro-Macedonian party in each of the Greek cities. Why was he able to form such groups in each city?

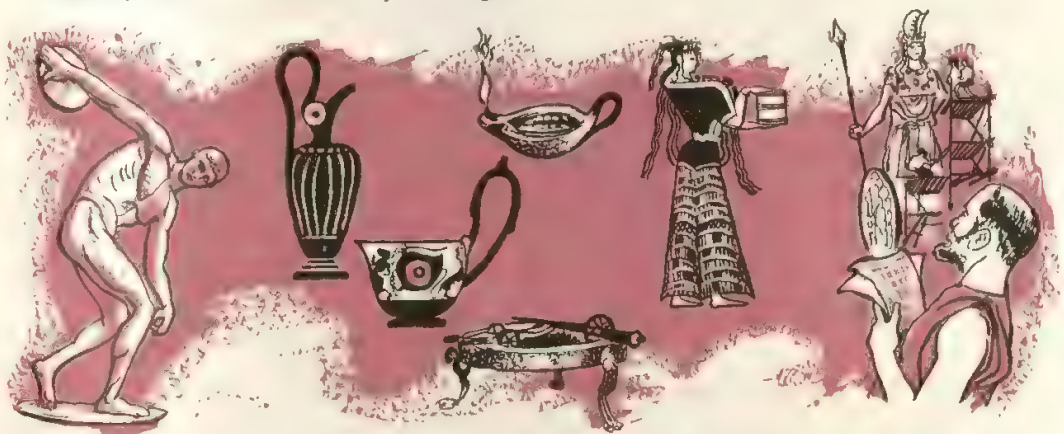
7. When we use such terms as the "working class" do we use the word "class" to mean the



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS



The Golden Age of Greece was the Age of Pericles, who promoted art in all its forms for the city of Athens. Fortunately, there were many highly skilled and imaginative Greeks who could carry out his plans. The result was the finest architecture, notably the Parthenon, and other public buildings that set new standards in architecture; the finest sculpture ever created by man; and graceful pottery, delicately tinted to set off its beauty and design.



The Greeks inherited all that mankind had learned up to their day, to which they added form and beauty. Man had now reached a high level in his culture.

same kind and degree of distinction that the Hellenistic Age knew:

8. Class distinction and economic differences prevented the common people from enjoying the inventions of the Hellenistic Age. Why is that not true in the United States today? Are there parts of the world in which it is still true?

9. Do you think that the great amount of slavery in the Hellenistic Age aided or retarded the invention of labor-saving devices?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

- Delian League • oligarchs • The Museum • the *Philippics* • the Ptolemies •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

- 404 B.C. • 338 B.C. • 336-323 B.C. •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

- Alexander's line of march • Alexandria,

Egypt • Antioch, Syria • Caeronea •  
Macedonia • Susa • Thebes •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Alexander the Great • Archimedes •  
Aristarchus • Eratosthenes • Euclid  
• Philip of Macedon • Pindar • Ptolemy I •

## II. History Related to Civics

1. List the factors that prevented the Hellenistic world from being a place where a common man could make a good living.

2. List the evils of slavery to (a) the slaves, (b) the poor free men, and (c) the slave owners.

## III. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Have an informal class debate on one of these topics:

a. Pericles was a greater statesman than general.

b. Athens betrayed her allies in the Delian League.

c. Philip and Alexander benefited the Greeks by forcing them into a united empire.

d. Alexander was more interested in conquest than in culture.

2. Draw a cartoon of one of the following topics:

• Athens made the Delian League an empire •  
Demosthenes tried to combat Philip with oratory • The Greeks wanted unity but fought among themselves • The Hellenistic Age was one of contrasts •

3. Prepare a floor talk for the class on the life and work of one of the men listed under *Can you identify these persons?*, I 4 above.

## IV. Picture Study

1. Winged Victory, shown on page 101, was made to celebrate a naval victory. The arms held a trumpet to the lips. What other means did the sculptor use to give a feeling of victory?

2. If the picture on page 106 were a modern scientist, what details would be different?

## GOOD READ

BOTSFORD, GEORGE W., *Hellenic History*, revised and rewritten by C. A. Robinson, The Macmillan Co., 1939

*A good book for pupils who want to know more about the wonders of old Greece than a textbook can give.*

BULFINCH, THOMAS, *Book of Myths*, The Macmillan Co., 1942

COOLIDGE, OLIVIA, *Greek Myths*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1942

CHENEY, SHELDON WARREN, *The Theater*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1952

*A survey of the theater from its beginnings down through the centuries. A well-illustrated reference book.*

CHURCH, ALFRED J., *Iliad of Homer*, The Macmillan Co., 1951

*A simple telling of Homer's story of the Trojan wars.*

CHURCH, ALFRED J., *Odyssey of Homer*, The Macmillan Co., 1951

*Retells the famous story of Ulysses.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS, *A Day in Old Athens*, Allyn and Bacon, 1914

*This book gives you the experience of a visitor in Athens in 360 B.C. It describes Athenian homes, clothes, food, marriage customs, lawyers, doctors, etc.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS, *Victor of Salamis*, The Macmillan Co., 1907

*The author of this book of fiction introduces you to the young athlete, Glaucon, and describes the stirring events of the Persian Wars.*

GARDNER, HELEN, *Art through the Ages*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948

HOPKINSON, LESLIE WHITE, *Greek Leaders*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918

*A book of outstanding leaders from Solon to Alexander.*

MAYER, ALBERT, *Olympiad*, Harper & Brothers, 1938

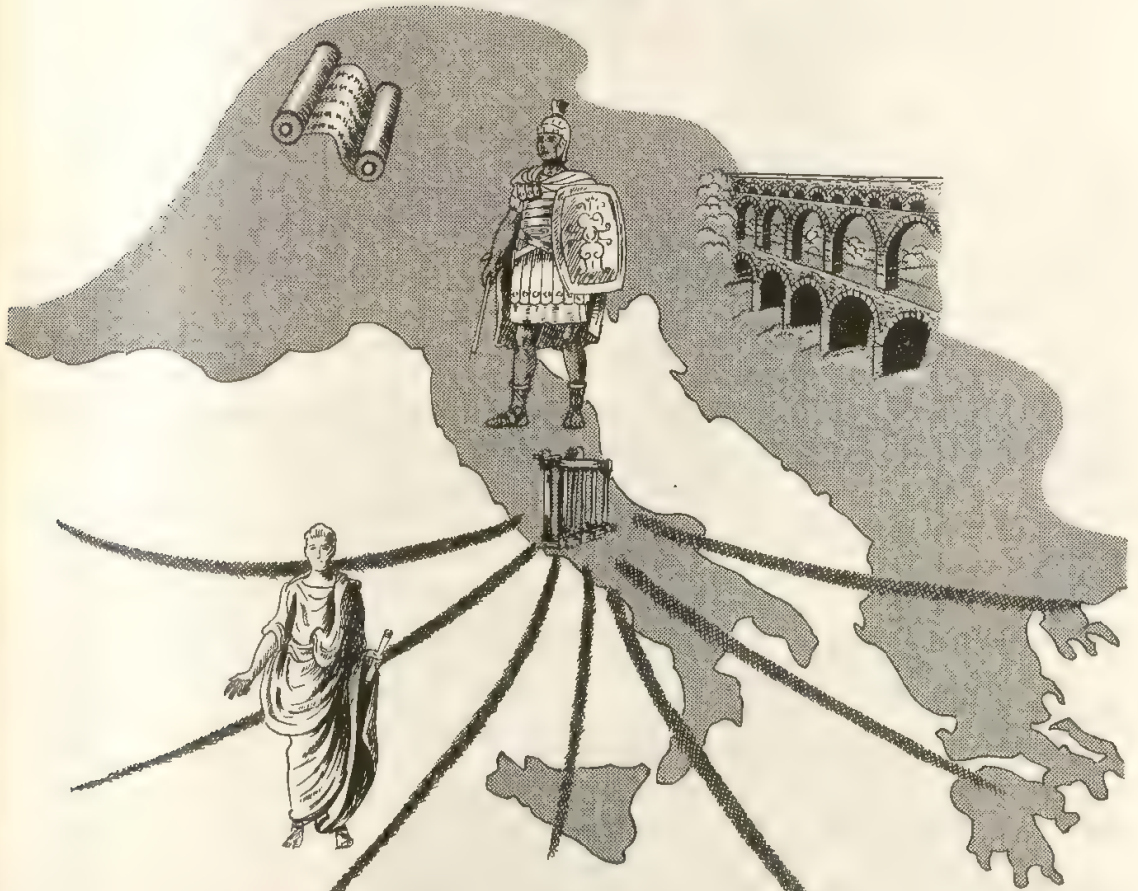
*This is the story of a young athlete, Thersius, and of the games in which he participated.*

MILLS, DOROTHY, *The Book of the Ancient Greeks*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1925

*An interesting and well-written book on the Greeks from their coming into the peninsula until 146 B.C.*

PLUTARCH, *Boys' and Girls' Plutarch*, G. P. Putnam's Sons

*Translations of the lives of famous Greeks and Romans written by the ancient Greek biographer, Plutarch.*



*The grandeur  
that was  
Rome*





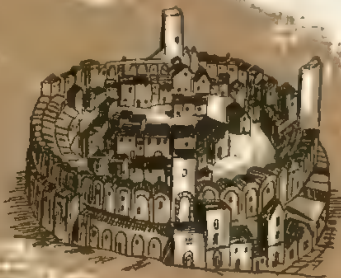
# ROMANI

The Greeks left their mark upon the world chiefly through their works of art and literature. The Romans, on the other hand, impressed the world with their genius for building and for governing a large empire. From the time the city of Rome became independent and set up her own government to the collapse of her large Empire, almost a thousand years passed. During that time, Rome brought into her Empire most of the world then known to her and governed it with high efficiency.

The Romans bound their vast Empire together with many ties. Rome became the center of a far-flung network of well-traveled highways. The saying that "all roads lead to Rome" was not a figure of speech, for the roads tied the Empire to Rome.

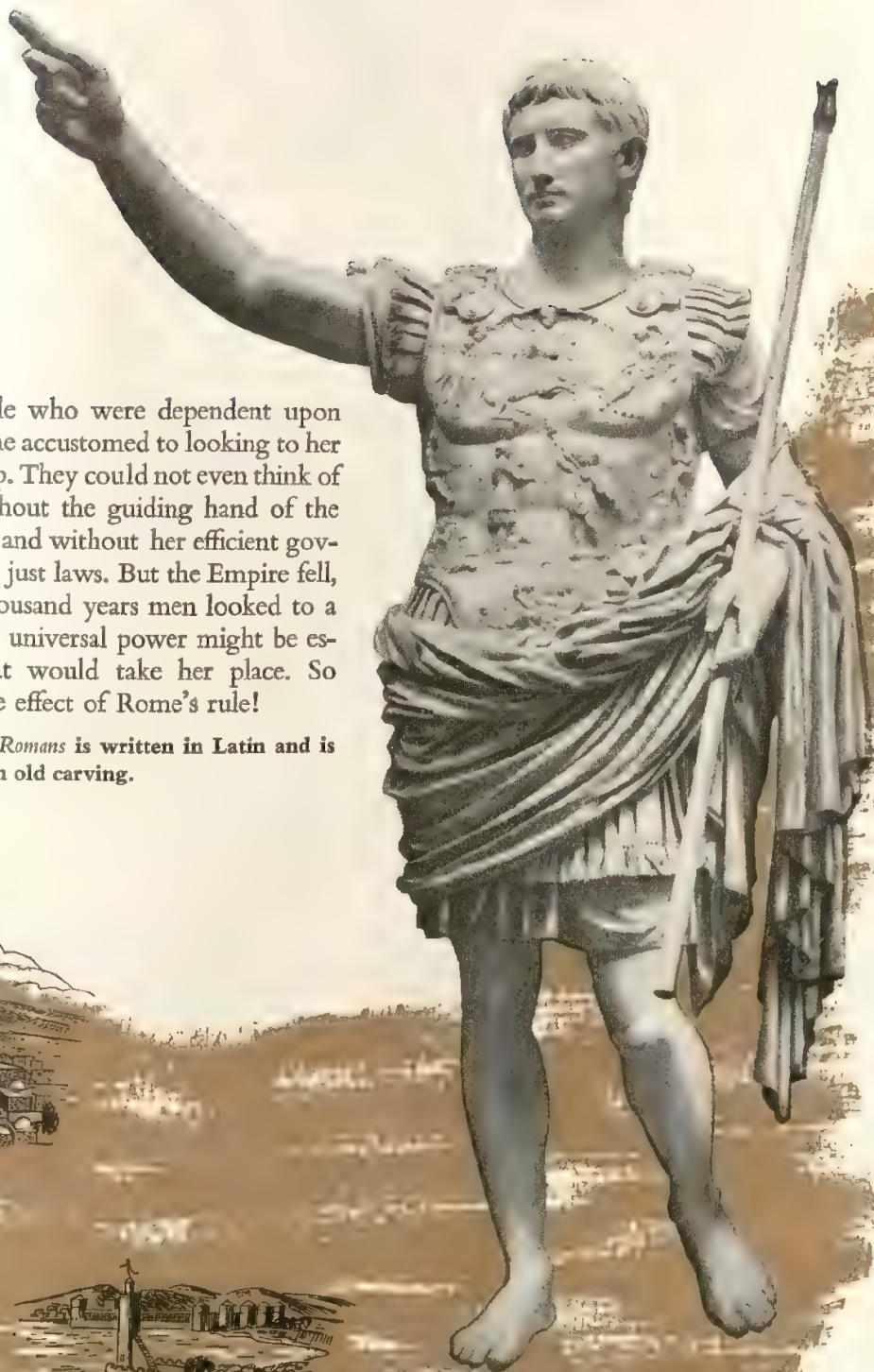
Ships plied between the different ports of the Empire and carried on extensive commerce. Soldiers whose homes were in one province were usually stationed in a different province. In these various ways Greeks, Egyptians, Spaniards, Gauls, and Britons met throughout the Empire and interchanged ideas and products. A common system of laws gave all sections of the Empire the same justice.

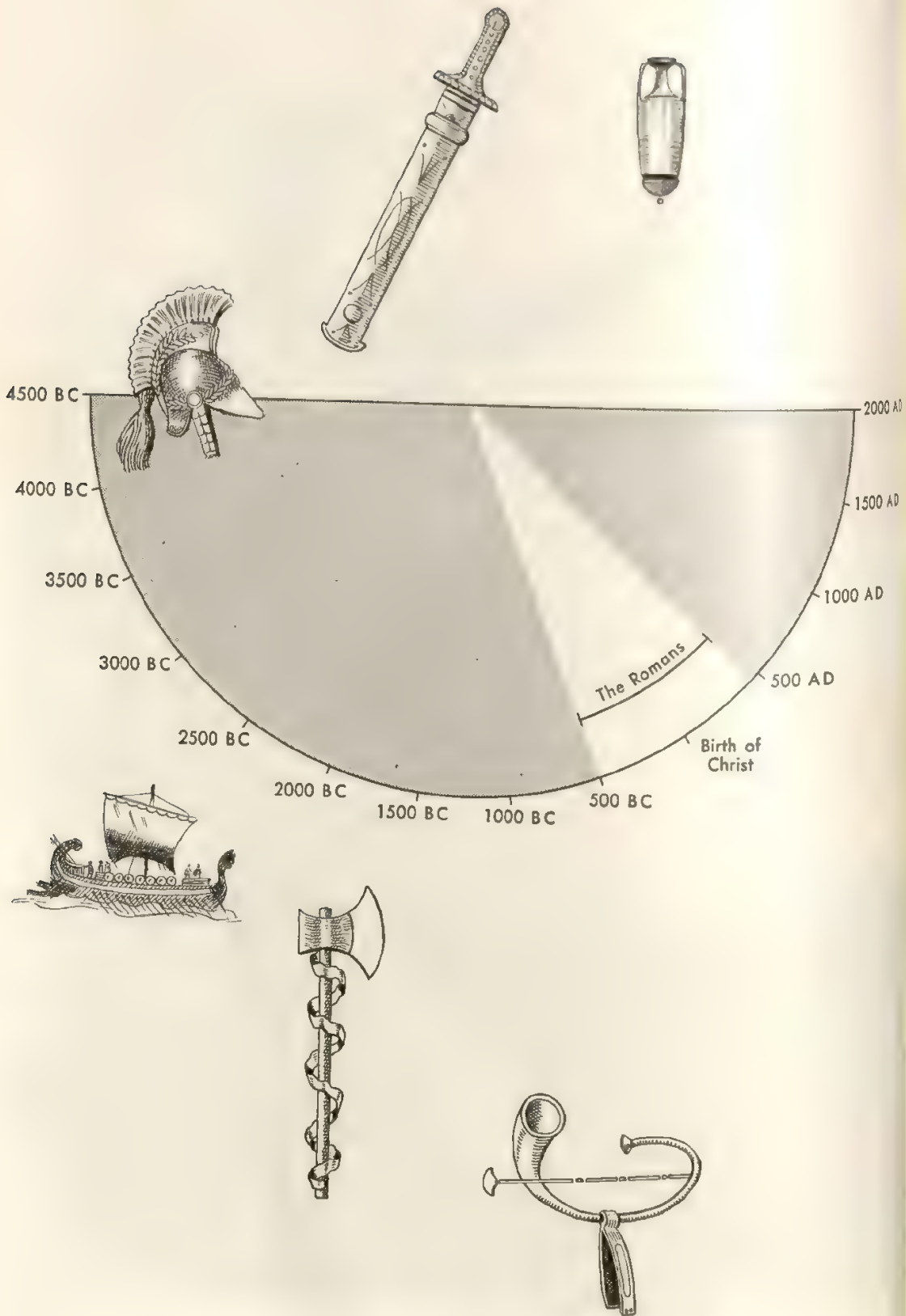
The world from Britain to Palestine and from Germany to the Sahara became a "nation" under the guidance of the imperial city.



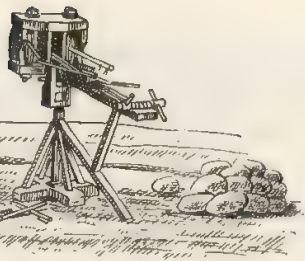
The people who were dependent upon Rome became accustomed to looking to her for leadership. They could not even think of a world without the guiding hand of the Roman state and without her efficient government and just laws. But the Empire fell, and for a thousand years men looked to a time when a universal power might be established that would take her place. So great was the effect of Rome's rule!

Our title *The Romans* is written in Latin and is copied from an old carving.









## Rome Becomes Ruler of Italy

**W**e say that the peninsula of Italy faces west. This is because the Apennine (ăp'ĕnĭn) Mountains, which run the length of the peninsula, are near the eastern coast. Moreover, their eastern slopes are more abrupt than their western slopes, making it difficult to get into the heart of Italy over the mountains from the east. Neither are there very many good harbors on the eastern coast. All these factors made the eastern part of the peninsula less attractive than the western part, with its wide coastal plain, good harbors, and gentle approaches to the Apennines. Also, across the western plain flows the one important navigable river of the peninsula, the Tiber. Naturally, then, settlements developed on the side of Italy that faces the west.

In the north of the peninsula is the rich and fertile Po River valley, cut off from the rest of the peninsula by the abrupt turn that the Apennines make as they reach the northern part of Italy. Beyond the Po valley lie the Alps, which form a barrier to Europe from the south. Crossing the Alps going north *from* Italy is hard because the mountains are steep on their southern slopes. Coming south *into* Italy is easier; the northern slopes are easier to climb. For this reason hordes of people have poured over the Alps into Italy at various times in her history and left their mark on the country.

### EFFECTS OF GEOGRAPHY ON ITALIAN HISTORY

All these geographic features affected the development of the Mediterranean world. In the first place, the central position of Italy in the Mediterranean Sea made it possible for her to dominate that sea. In the second place, the fact that Italy faces west permitted her to gain control of the western Mediterranean at a time when it still had no civilization of its own. Roman culture thus spread throughout the western Mediterranean area.

*In the rich Po Valley oxen are still used as beasts of burden. The owner of this land lives in a castle nearby.*

Rapho-Guillumette



Italy was not cut up into small valleys as Greece was. The western plain was large enough so that the chief city, Rome, could control all of it. From this substantial base Rome took over the whole peninsula and eventually the entire Mediterranean world.

Italy extends nearly seven hundred miles from the Alps to the southernmost point of the peninsula. The entire country is small, only a bit larger than New England. Its long range from north to south gives Italy a variety of climate, from temperate in the north to perpetual summer in the south. In much of Italy it is possible to raise two crops a year. Such a range of climate makes it possible also to raise a variety of crops, although, as in Greece, the common ones are wheat, barley, olives, and wine.

**Latins** Into this beautiful and fruitful land there came about 1800 B.C. a group of invading Indo-European tribesmen from over Alpine passes, who crossed the Po River and the Apennines to reach the fertile western plain. The most important of the Italic tribes, the Latins, settled in Latium (lā'shī um) just south of the Tiber River between the Apennines and the sea. The language they spoke was Latin, but they could not read or write. They had learned to use bronze; and their bronze swords helped them to subdue the population they found when they arrived.

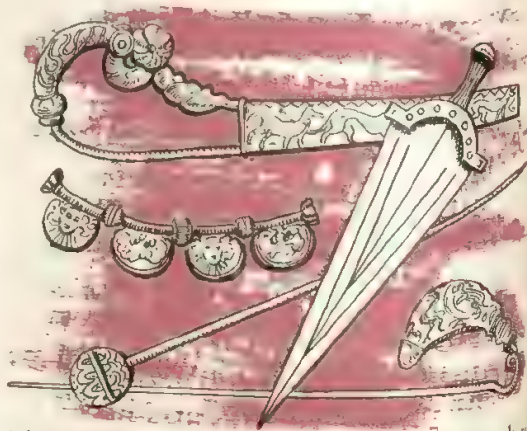
### Other Migrations into Italy

Three other peoples in addition to the Latins came into Italy. Into that part of the land north of the Tiber came a seafaring people from the East. They were the Etruscans (ē trūs'kanz) who had probably escaped from Crete when it was overrun by the invading Greeks. They had great influence upon their southern neighbors whom

they conquered and ruled for more than two centuries.

Southern Italy, as we have seen, became the home of many Greeks who lived in scattered city-states. The island of Sicily, too, was the home of Greeks living in the eastern part, but the west was colonized by Phoenicians and by Carthaginians from across the Mediterranean in North Africa. The Gauls had pushed down over the Alps into the Po River valley, where they settled.

1. Describe the chief geographical features of Italy and locate them on a map.
2. How did Italy's position in the Mediterranean Sea affect her?
3. In what ways was Rome's position in Italy good?
4. Name the different peoples who came into Italy and Sicily and tell where each settled.



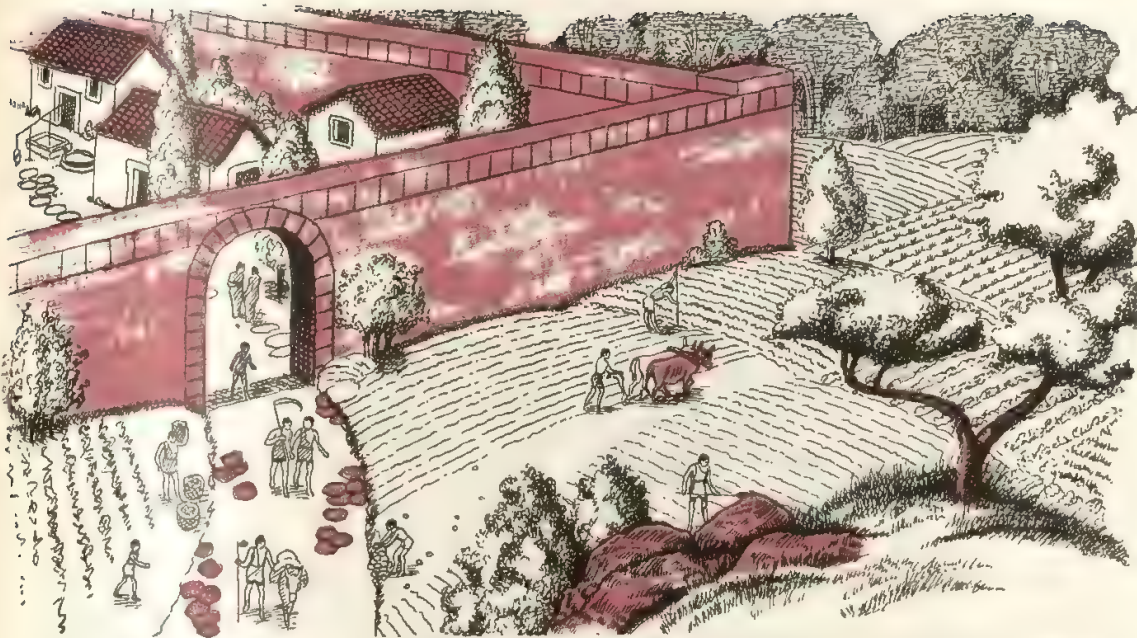
*The Etruscans were far in advance of their neighbors in culture. Their work in bronze was magnificent and in great variety.*

### ROME BECOMES A REPUBLIC

#### Rome and the Early Romans

The wandering Latins, like the early Greeks, were herdsmen, but when they settled on the south bank of the Tiber in





*Because their farms near the coast were fertile, the Latins became well to do and enjoyed more culture than the people who lived up in the mountains. For many centuries, the two groups fought each other.*

Latium most of them became farmers. They lived in small walled towns, but their fields were outside the towns. Every morning the farmers walked out to tend their fields, and at night they returned inside the safety of the town wall. All people, both rich and poor, depended primarily upon agriculture for a living.

Nothing definite is known about the early history of Rome. A probable explanation of its origin is that it grew from a small trading post that the Latins established fourteen miles from the sea on the Tiber. They soon constructed a fortress on the Palatine Hill, one of the Seven Hills that overlook the plain in that section. Other settlements were made on the other six hills, and as the population grew these merged into a city.

From many points of view Rome had a desirable situation. She was far enough up the river so that foreign navies could not easily attack her. The hills, when fortified,

made strongholds against attackers by land. Her central position in the western plain gave her tremendous advantage in conquering and ruling that plain.

**Etruscan Rule** But in the eighth century B.C. Rome was still weak despite her geographic position. She watched with fear her cultured and aggressive neighbors across the Tiber River. Her fear was justified, for about 750 B.C. an Etruscan prince conquered Rome and all of Latium.

Excavations of the Etruscan tombs have yielded objects that show that the Etruscans were highly skilled people. They produced beautiful metal work and pottery. They traded with the Greeks, from whom they learned new methods of doing business as well as artistic designs for their pottery and jewelry.

The Etruscans improved Rome, also. They drained off the water from the low-





Metropolitan Museum of Art.

*The Etruscans were masters at working with bronze. Their bronze armor was beautifully carved.*

lands surrounding the Seven Hills. They built a wall around the city and erected better buildings within it. The Romans kept their own language, Latin, but were not slow in learning other things from their conquerors. They were soon producing beautiful pottery and metal work. They also began to trade with the Greeks. They learned the art of war so well from the Etruscans that about 500 B.C. they were able to drive out their masters and set up a government of their own.

**The Early Republic** The new government was a republic; the officials were elected. It was an aristocratic republic, for only the patrician, or aristocratic, class could hold office. The poor workmen and farmers, who made up the plebs (plēbz) or plebeian (plē be' ān) class, had almost no voice in the government. Each year two patricians were elected to serve as chief magistrates, called *consuls*. They were the leaders of the army; they could propose

laws to the Assembly, which was made up of the weapon-bearing men. The consuls acted as judges in certain cases, and had the power to execute laws. Since the two consuls could check on each other's acts, neither of them could become all-powerful. In time of emergency such as war, the Senate replaced them with a dictator.

The most important body in the government was the Senate, which was composed of patricians who held office for life. The Senate had to approve the laws and the candidates for office. In its hands were taxation and many other affairs, including the foreign policy of Rome. The Assembly, on the other hand, had very little power. All citizens who could afford to bear weapons were members, but the votes of the patricians counted for more than those of the plebs in the Assembly.

### **The Plebs vs. the Patricians**

The plebs were dissatisfied with the government that gave them so little voice in the affairs of the state and refused them the right to marry into the patrician class. Shortly after the Republic was set up, the plebs threatened to leave Rome and move across the Tiber to found their own city. The patricians needed them in their army and so were forced to grant them more rights. They were permitted to elect magistrates known as *tribunes*. The tribunes had the right to "veto," which means "I forbid," the acts of any other magistrate if such acts endangered the rights of the plebs.

By using the veto power, the tribunes were able to break down the barriers between the plebs and patricians. The plebs fought for another century and a half to get equal rights, however. Point by point they gradually gained ground. About 450 B.C. they secured a written code of laws called

the Twelve Tables, so-called because they were engraved upon twelve tables of bronze. Later the plebs were permitted to marry patricians. Then they were given their fair share in the distribution of public lands. Finally, they were permitted to hold any office in the Republic, and after a term of office they could even enter the Senate. Early in the third century B.C. the Assembly was granted the power to make laws. That ended the distinction between plebs and patricians. The old aristocratic republic had given way to a democratic republic.

The Roman type of democracy differed from the Athenian. You will remember that Athens was a direct, or pure, democracy in which all citizens shared in making the laws. In Rome, on the other hand, *representatives* of the people made the important decisions. This was a type of democracy more suited to a large population. Modern democracies follow this type.

*The Roman soldier's wife adjusts his breastplate, while his proud son holds his shield and lance.*

Bettmann Archive



Rome began to conquer the Italian "boot" about 400 B.C. About 100 years later, the peninsula was hers.

## ROME CONQUERS ITALY

As Rome grew in power, her neighbors looked upon her with suspicion, and in order to protect herself she developed a strong army of farmer-soldiers. They were hardy and well-disciplined. Moreover, they were fighting to protect their homes and families or to acquire more land, which would be divided among the citizens. Therefore, they fought with vigor.

Through a series of wars covering more than two centuries Rome successfully beat off her enemies and turned aggressor, conquering one after another. She subdued her Latin neighbors, the Italic tribes east of her, the Etruscans to the north, and finally the Greeks of southern Italy. Rome treated the conquered peoples well. She did not make them subjects but "Italian allies," and demanded only troops and financial aid, while she gave them protection and a great amount of local self-government. This mild treatment helped keep the conquered nations loyal to her.

Rome's rise to power in Italy had not been speedy, but now she ruled the peninsula.

1. How did the city of Rome come into existence?
2. Who ruled Rome before 500 B.C.?
3. What is a republic?
4. What powers did the Assembly and Senate have in the early Republic?
5. How did Rome become more democratic as time passed?
6. Describe the organization of the Roman army.
7. Tell how Rome gained control of the Italian peninsula.
8. How did Rome treat the people of Italy whom she conquered?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How did the geography of Italy lead to the development of the Roman Empire?
2. Italy faces west. How did this affect the history and the culture of Western Europe?
3. In what ways was the government of the Roman Republic like that of the United States? In what ways was it different?
4. Compare the Roman Senate with the Senate of the United States as to membership, term of office, and powers.
5. Why do many modern governments follow the representative system of the Romans rather than the pure democracy of the Greeks?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*  
 • "all roads lead to Rome" • Assembly • "City of Seven Hills" • "Italian Allies" • patrician • plebs • republic • Senate • tribunes • Twelve Tables • consuls •

2. *Do you know your dates?*  
 • 1800 B.C. • 450 B.C. • 750-500 B.C. •
3. *Places to locate on the map:*  
 • Alps Mountains • Apennine Mountains • Tiber River • Italy • Po River • Rome • Territory occupied by Etruscans, Latins, Greeks, and Gauls •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

The Etruscans were skilled in making articles of bronze and brass. Let a boy who is interested in metal shop work consult his teacher in that subject or a reference book to find out how the Etruscans did the work. Explain it to the class.

2. Thomas B. Macaulay's *Lays of Ancient Rome* contains a poem entitled "Horatius at the Bridge." Appoint one pupil to read portions of it to the class.

3. Select one of the following topics for report to the class.

- The mythical story of the founding of Rome
- Etruscan art • The Senate of the early Republic..

## III. At the Blackboard

List on the blackboard the reasons for the development of trade in Italy. Be prepared to defend your list.

## IV. A Debate

Appoint four members of the class to debate, two on each side, this question, Resolved: that the Roman Republic had a better government than the Athenian city-state.

## V. Picture Study

Can you give two reasons why oxen are used in the Po Valley as shown in the picture on page 115?



# Rome Rules the Mediterranean World



For more than two centuries after Rome became a republic, she was so occupied at home that she had little time to look outside Italy to see what was going on. After the conquest of the Greeks of southern Italy, however, she had a breathing space in which she could turn her attention abroad. As the young, confident city of Rome looked out toward the sea, she faced Carthage in North Africa, a city that had been founded by the sea-faring Phoenicians and now was the center of a commercial empire.

## ROME AND CARTHAGE CLASH

**Carthage** Carthage ruled the Western Mediterranean Sea routes and had colonies around that sea. The Spanish silver mines added to her wealth. She had a navy and an army composed chiefly of mercenaries, or hired soldiers. Carthage was a wealthy Hellenistic city. She had a magnificent harbor, beautiful buildings, wide avenues carefully laid out, and all the elegance and luxury of wealth.

**Rome** Carthage despised the poor city of Rome with its narrow lanes and mud-brick, one-story houses. Yet Rome had assets which any city might envy. Her citizen army possessed hardihood and

patriotism that money could not buy. The Roman Senate was made up of loyal men who lived simple lives and worked hard in their efforts to rule Rome well. It is doubtful that any nation has ever had a better and more conscientious group of men to govern it than Rome had in the senators of the early Republic.

**Punic Wars** There was jealousy between powerful and wealthy Carthage and the poor but ambitious city on the Tiber. Carthage refused other cities the right to trade in the ports that she controlled. This angered the Romans, whose ambitions to build up trade were thus interfered with. When Carthage occupied the port of Messina (mě sě'nà) in North-eastern Sicily, war came (264 B.C.). It was

*Hannibal, the Carthaginian leader of the Punic Wars, has been called "history's most glorious failure." Why?*



the beginning of a series of three wars known as the Punic (pū'nīk) Wars, which were to last until 146 B.C.

The First Punic War lasted twenty-three years. Many times during that war it seemed that Rome could not withstand the force of Carthage any longer. For the first time the Romans fought on the sea. Nevertheless, they won a decisive naval victory, and the Carthaginians had to sue for peace. Rome kept the island of Sicily, which insured her the control of the Strait of Messina.

The Second Punic War was fought for the possession of Spain. Carthage had the services of her brilliant general, Hannibal. He daringly marched an army of 60,000 men through Spain and Gaul (modern France), across the Alps, into Italy. After great suffering and loss of men in the terrible climb, he established a base in the northern part of the peninsula and sent secret agents among the Romans to break down their morale.

*Hannibal's march over the Alps, with 300 elephants as beasts of burden, was one of the feats of history.*

Brown Brothers



Hannibal won important victories and maintained his army on Italian soil for fifteen years without losing a single battle. Finally the Romans sent an army under the able general Scipio Africanus (sip'i ō āf'ri-cān'ūs) into Carthage's own territory. Then Carthage needed the leadership of Hannibal at home, so he returned, met the Roman army, and was defeated at Zama near Carthage in 202 B.C.

The humiliating terms that Rome pressed upon Carthage stripped her of most of her possessions and her navy. She was forbidden the right to make war on anyone without Rome's permission.

Hannibal, who had escaped to the East, tried to find allies in the eastern Mediterranean to help him fight Rome. Those countries that consented were too weak to withstand the powerful Rome, however, and were conquered one at a time. First Macedonia and Greece fell, and then western Asia Minor.

There were Romans for whom even the humiliation to Carthage of the second Punic War was not enough. The slogan ran through Rome, "Carthage must be destroyed." Carthage attempted to protect herself against her troublesome neighbors in Africa. Rome grasped this as an excuse to wage a third war. Carthage held out stubbornly for three years, but finally had to give in. Rome burned Carthage to the ground and either killed or sold into slavery most of the inhabitants. Rome was now the undisputed mistress of the Mediterranean world. A few places were still unconquered, but they were gradually added.

**Effects of the Punic Wars** The Punic Wars and the conquest of the Eastern Mediterranean had a profound effect upon

Rome. She had taken leadership away from the Eastern cities of Alexandria, Antioch, and Athens, as well as from Carthage in the west. This made Rome the hub of the Mediterranean world. As such her citizens came into contact with Hellenistic culture and this changed the whole trend of her civilization. Rome's possession of the Western Mediterranean, which was chiefly inhabited by primitive people, gave her an opportunity to Latinize those people. The Roman merchants who now were thriving from trade with the new possessions came home rich and bought up the land of the poor farmers who had fought the wars. The rich men raised cattle on a large scale and could undersell the small farmer who had to go into debt to pay his taxes. Eventually the small farmer who had been the backbone of the Roman Republic lost his lands. In this way the rich were becoming richer and the poor poorer, and strife between the two classes developed. Finally, Rome now had on her hands the task of ruling conquered peoples, some backward and some highly cultured.

1. Locate Carthage. Who founded it?
2. What advantages did Carthage have in the wars with Rome? What advantages did Rome have?
3. Why did war develop between Rome and Carthage?
4. What did Rome get from the First Punic War?
5. Discuss the Second Punic War.
6. What were the chief provisions of the treaty that ended the Second Punic War?
7. Tell about the activities of Hannibal after the Second Punic War.
8. What was the final fate of Carthage?
9. What effects did the Punic Wars have upon Rome?

## A CENTURY OF CIVIL STRIFE FOLLOWS THE PUNIC WARS

Not long after the close of the Punic Wars, civil war broke out in Rome (133 B.C.). This strife continued off and on for a century. It was really a struggle between the Senatorial class and the poor class. These two groups developed into what we shall call the Senatorial party and the People's party.

**Senatorial Class** During the Punic Wars the Senate's power over foreign affairs enabled it to increase its control of the government. The character of the membership of the Senate had changed, too. The senators now were not the humble, self-sacrificing men who made up the Senate during the early days of the Punic Wars. Now that the wars were over, the Senate continued to remain supreme but used its powers for its own selfish interests.

**Common People** The vast masses of Romans, however, did not belong to the Senatorial class and they had interests, too. The landless farmers came to the city to get jobs as laborers or to join the already large number of jobless. Very few Romans living outside the city could get in to attend the Assembly and so that body was now composed chiefly of the poorly paid laborers and the unemployed. This large group formed the majority of the People's party. They demanded cheap bread or free bread paid for out of public funds.

**Dictators** Such a situation made it possible for ambitious politicians to gain offices by bribing the poor with free grain and entertainment. Thus the political situation became very grave. With the masses





Courtesy, Twentieth Century-Fox

*This scene from the movie, *The Robe*, shows interesting details of the life of the wealthy Romans in the days of the Empire—their dress, house furnishing, etc. Notice the slaves at the left and right.*

behind him, a politician could become almost a dictator. The republican form of government did not seem able to handle the situation. Corruption and bribery became worse and civil strife almost constant.

Men who were ambitious to gain political power used yet another method. Military leaders who could win lands for Rome and bring back booty became the heroes of the day, with either the Senate or the People, whichever they happened to be leading. When two such leaders vied for power there was trouble. Assassinations, riots, and civil strife followed.

**Julius Caesar** Out of a century of struggle came a great general and a clever political leader, Julius Caesar (sē'zēr). Having been given the governorship of Gaul, Caesar expanded that province until it included all the territory from the Mediterranean to the North Sea and from the Rhine River to the Atlantic Ocean. He even invaded Britain, across the English Channel. While in Gaul, Caesar sent back an account of his deeds to prepare the people for his

triumphal return to Rome. When he was ready to come back, Pompey (pŏm'pī), who had become leader of the Senatorial party, ordered Caesar to disband his army and return without a following. At the river Rubicon, which separated his province of Gaul from Italy, Caesar made his decision. To cross it with his army meant civil war, for he was defying the Senate, which was then in power. To cross it without an army meant the blasting of all his ambitions and probably death. He ordered the army across and swiftly marched on Rome. Pompey, knowing the devotion of Caesar's army and the ability of Caesar as a commander, fled from Italy to Greece. In quick succession Caesar made attacks. First he marched on Rome, which gave in without resistance. Then he took Spain, which had been held by Pompey's lieutenants. Sardinia and Corsica were taken, and before Pompey could muster his eastern army and get back to Italy, Caesar was in Greece. The two men met on the battlefield of Pharsalia (fār sā'li ā) and Caesar won. Pompey fled to Egypt.

When Caesar arrived in Egypt he pardoned his enemies and wept over the death of Pompey. For the first time during the civil wars a conqueror dealt generously with his opponents.

Caesar came back to Rome to rule more like an emperor than a consul. But though he had much power, he kept the outward forms of a republic. The Senate and Assembly met as usual. Caesar even refused the crown when it was offered him. Still, many feared that he was not ruling in the interest of the state and was awaiting a better opportunity to make himself king. Accordingly, a group of Senators planned his assassination. The deed was carried out on March 15, 44 B.C., under the leadership of men whom Caesar had called his friends.

stand. Although Caesar had not called himself king, it was evident that the republican form of government had ended and a one-man rule of some type was in store for the Roman Empire. Caesar had linked the Republic and the new government.

No Roman appealed to his fellow countrymen as Caesar did. He was a clever politician and a great general. In recognition of his greatness, many honors were bestowed upon him. He was made dictator for life. The seventh month of the year, July, was named for him. The Senate gave him so many offices that he had control of the state. Thus the power that had formerly been held by a number of officials became concentrated in the hands of one man.

During the years when Caesar was head of the government he had found time outside his military campaigns to make reforms. He improved the government of the Italian cities. He established Roman colonies in different parts of the Empire, thus

## THE END OF THE REPUBLIC

The strain of a century of civil war had been too much for the dying Republic to



strengthening its unity and at the same time taking out of Rome thousands of discontented poor. He extended citizenship to the people of a number of the conquered cities. He replaced the unwieldy Roman calendar with the Egyptian calendar, which he revised to make it more accurate. All these and many other reforms showed him to be not only a shrewd politician, but a wise and far-seeing statesman.

**Octavian** Caesar left the bulk of his vast fortune to his grand-nephew, Octavian (òk tāv'ī an), who was only eighteen years old. Against the advice of his friends, Octavian hurried to Rome to take his inheritance and to succeed to his uncle's place in Rome. After a successful campaign in the East, he added Egypt to the Empire. His enemies were destroyed and he returned to Rome. The civil strife was at last over and the Empire was to know domestic peace and prosperity for two centuries.

Rome now had most of the Mediterranean world in her grasp, but the most difficult task lay ahead. That was the wise governing of so vast a territory. A good government is one that gives peace, prosperity, contentment, and the opportunity for cultural development to its people. Would Rome be wise enough for that? Could people of so many nationalities be molded into a real nation? Could Rome govern such semi-barbaric peoples as the Gauls and the Britons while dealing with the difficult problems of civilized people? These were the problems that faced the thirty-three year old Octavian upon his return from his successful campaign. He ruled from 31 B.C. to 14 A.D.

1. When was the century of civil strife?

2. What two parties were there in Rome during that period? Who were in each party?
3. What methods did Romans use to get control of the Roman government?
4. Tell the story of the clash between Caesar and Pompey.
5. List the important achievements of Julius Caesar that have given him such an exalted position in Roman history.
6. What was the chief effect of the civil war upon the Roman government?
7. Who was Octavian?
8. What were Rome's big problems when the century of strife was over?

#### THE GOVERNMENT OF THE EMPIRE UNDERGOES CHANGE

**Augustus** In Octavian, the Romans had a wise and able statesman. He knew the Romans' hatred of kings and he did not try to gain that title. Like Julius Caesar, he was given the powers of a ruler through the many offices conferred upon him. He was consul, tribune, and *pontifex maximus* (põn'tī fěx mǎx'ī mus) (high priest of the state religion). Besides, he was *imperator* (īm pěr ā'tôr), which meant commander in chief of the army. The title *princeps* (prĭn'sěps), meaning the first citizen, was one of honor. So was *Augustus*, which means "the wise one." The last title was the one by which Octavian has been called ever since. By holding all these offices of the Republic, Augustus became, in fact, the Emperor of the Roman Empire.

Like Julius Caesar, Augustus brought about many reforms. He brought honesty, fair taxes, and good government to the provinces, which were being ruined by the greed of governors and tax collectors. He built roads, drained swamps, and encour-





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*The winning of a war, especially if it added land to Rome, was the occasion for a Roman holiday. The conqueror returned in triumphal procession with his army and captives who would be sold as slaves.*

aged trade in the Empire. He built so many public buildings in the city of Rome that he could honestly say, "I found Rome brick and I left it marble." The greatest contribution that Augustus made to Rome, however, was to bring peace to the Empire so that trade and the arts could flourish.

**Later Emperors** There was little left of the known world for Rome to take. A century later, a Roman emperor conquered Britain. Shortly after that, another ruler crossed the Danube and made Dacia a Roman province. A few sections were added here and there to complete the circle of the Mediterranean. Thus the small city on the Tiber had become the undisputed mistress of the Mediterranean world.

While Augustus kept the outward forms of the Republic, his successors did not. They made changes in the form of government, but these changes came about gradually through the centuries. The changes were along two general lines: (1) the unifying of the Empire and (2) the increase in the power of the emperor.

Tiberius (tī bē'rī us) (14-37 A.D.), the successor of Augustus, abolished the Roman Assembly. It had become a body composed chiefly of the Roman unemployed mob who voted to accept measures that the emperor and Senate had already agreed upon.

Claudius (klō'dī us), who ruled in the middle of the first century, began the practice of letting the provinces send men to sit in the Senate. This practice was carried out further by other emperors, thus helping to unify the Empire into a real nation. This was also helped by an extension of citizenship. In the days of the early Republic only Romans were citizens. But by 212 A.D. all the free people within the Empire had become citizens. This did not mean that they had a voice in the government at Rome, but that they had equal rights with Romans before the law.

**Diocletian** After another century of civil war, a strong man, Diocletian (dī ō klē'shun) (284-305 A.D.), became emperor after defeating his enemies and

grasping power. He was the son of an ex-slave and, like the emperors of the earlier century, had risen to power through the army. As emperor he established order and reorganized the government. In doing so he radically changed the whole spirit of Roman government.

His first change was to make it highly centralized. Believing that the Empire was too large to be ruled by one man, he divided it into four sections each ruled by a man responsible to him. He himself ruled the eastern section made up of Asia, Thrace, and Egypt. These four sections were further subdivided into dioceses, and the dioceses were divided into provinces ruled by governors. In order to see that the governors were loyal and honest, Diocletian set up an intricate spy system of secret police.

*One source of Rome's strength was the system of roads that connected the Empire. All roads and sea routes were linked to the city of Rome.*

Moreover, the emperor adopted all the symbols of an Oriental despot with a jeweled crown, purple robes embroidered with precious stones, and a throne.

Diocletian's government also took from the people their personal liberties. Wages and prices were fixed by law. Sons had to follow their fathers' trades. Taxes were raised to a point where people could scarcely get the money to pay them. In these ways the lives of the people were regulated by the government. All of this was very different from the government of Augustus. Rome had changed from a limited monarchy with the outward forms of a republic to an oriental despotism in which the state was all-important and the people had lost their freedom. War took the emperor very often to the East, in



Asia Minor. He appointed another emperor to watch over the West for him. Thus a situation was brought about that was gradually to *split the Empire*.

**Constantine** The Emperor successor, Constantine (cǒn'stǎn tīn) (324-337) carried out the system of government established by Diocletian. In 330 Constantine moved the capital from Rome to Byzantium (bī zǎn'shǐ ūm) on the Bosphorus. The city was renamed Constantinople after the ruler and rebuilt on a grander scale at great expense to the already over-burdened taxpayers. While it was not the intention of Constantine to divide the Empire, as time passed the division between the East and the West grew. At length there were two empires, the Eastern Empire and the Western Empire.

1. What titles were bestowed upon Augustus and what did each title mean?
2. What type of government did Augustus set up for Rome?
3. How did Augustus improve the government of the provinces?
4. Along what two lines did the successors of Augustus change the government of the Roman Empire?
5. Arrange the following emperors in the order in which they ruled and tell for what each was chiefly noted: Diocletian, Augustus, Tiberius, Constantine, and Claudius.
6. What steps were taken from time to time to unify the Empire?
7. What steps were taken by different emperors to give more power to the emperors?
8. In what ways did the people lose their personal liberties?
9. How did the Empire come to be divided into two empires?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why was Carthage with her great wealth defeated by Rome, a small and poor city?
2. Why is Hannibal considered such a great general?
3. In your opinion, did the good effects of Rome's contact with the Hellenistic civilization offset the bad effects?
4. Do men still use the methods that the Romans used to make themselves dictators?
5. What does the term "crossing the Rubicon" mean today?
6. Why was Julius Caesar accounted one of the great figures in history?
7. Is there danger today that a republic could have the outward forms of self-government, but, like the Rome of Augustus' day, really give the people very little voice in the government? Explain.
8. It has been said that the greatest achievement of Augustus was the establishment of peace in the Roman Empire. Why was that true?
9. What was there about her administration that made Rome able to weld the Mediterranean World into an empire in which there was satisfaction on the part of the people for a long period?
10. Why did Diocletian think the Roman Empire was too large to be governed as a unit, when today even larger empires are ruled?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?  
 • imperator • mercenaries • pontifex maximus • princeps •
2. Do you know your dates?  
 • 264-146 B.C. • 44 B.C. • 212 A.D. •  
 133-30 B.C. • 31 B.C.-14 A.D. • 330 A.D. •
3. Places to locate on the map:  
 • Asia Minor • Britain • Carthage •



Corsica • Dacia • Danube River • Gaul  
• Rubicon River • Sardinia • Spain •  
Strait of Messina • Zama • The division  
of the Empire by Constantine

**4. Can you identify these persons?**

• Augustus • Julius Caesar • Claudius •  
Constantine • Diocletian • Hannibal •  
Pompey • Octavian • Scipio Africanus  
• Tiberius •

**5.** Using Shepherd's *Historical Atlas* or some other, estimate the length of Hannibal's march into Italy. Use the scale of miles in the key to the map.

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

**1.** If you like to carve or model in clay, make a model of a Roman ship for the class to see.

**2.** Here are some men who played interesting parts in Roman history. Select one to read about and report to the class.

• Cincinnatus • The Gracchi brothers •  
Cleopatra • Marcus Antonius • Marcus  
Aurelius •

*Constantine, marching to Rome, sees a cross in the sky and the words, "Through this sign thou shalt conquer."*

Ewing Galloway



**3.** Read in *Plutarch's Lives of The Noble Grecians and Romans* the life of one of the Gracchi or Pompey or Anthony. Report to the class.

**4.** Here are some interesting side-lights of Roman history. Look up one of the following for a report to the class:

• Hannibal's march over the Alps • The old Roman calendar • A Roman triumph • The city of Carthage • The conquest of Britain • Caesar in Gaul • The Roman Army •

**5.** Pretend that you were one of the Gracchi. Write a five-minute speech to read to the class that you might have delivered to the Roman Senate on the need for reform in Rome.

## III. A Radio Broadcast

Prepare the script for a five-minute broadcast that might have been given if there had been radios when Caesar crossed the Rubicon. Give it to the class.

## IV. For the Bulletin Board

**1.** Place a sign "Who's Who in Rome" at the top of the bulletin board. Start a collection of pictures of famous Romans to put beneath it. As you study about Rome add to the collection. Let each pupil choose the picture of one man to write a suitable caption for. You can probably think of some clever captions.

**2.** Make a chart of the Roman government under Diocletian. You can get further information on its organization from Mill's *Book of the Ancient Romans* or Davis' *A Day in Old Rome*.

## V. Picture Study

**1.** Of what value to Hannibal were the elephants shown in the picture on page 122?

**2.** Why did the Roman people enjoy such a procession as that shown on page 127?



## *Roman Civilization Keeps Step With Her Power*

**T**hrough these many years we have been reading about, the Romans had not spent all their time in the affairs of government and in wars. They were very much interested in their homes, in the education of their children, in religion, sports, the theater, and other everyday matters just as people have always been.

### ROMAN FAMILY LIFE, THE FOUNDATION OF HER CIVILIZATION

Of all the Roman institutions the family was the most important and had a lasting influence upon Roman character. The Roman family was composed of the husband, his wife, his sons and their wives and children, and his unmarried daughters. Frequently they all lived together. The head of the household had absolute authority over every family, with the right even to sell any member into slavery if he wished, or to inflict cruel punishment upon him. Actually, very little cruelty was practiced, for parents loved their children. Strict discipline was maintained, however, and there was high respect for the head of the house. In the days of the Roman Empire, family life be-

came more and more lax. Divorce became common and the family was much less closely united.

**Position of Women** No women of the ancient world held such a high position as Roman women. They were mistresses of their own homes, even though the head of the family had much power. They mingled with the men of the family. They attended public games and festivals and went on the streets and to the shops as often as they wished, though they were usually escorted. Even though they had no direct voice in government affairs, they did discuss public questions with their husbands and sons.

**Homes** The Roman house was very simple in the early days of Rome. A single room was used for cooking, eating, and sleeping. There were no windows and only one door. The light came in through a hole in the roof, which also served to let the smoke out. Later other rooms were built off the central one. When Rome came into contact with Hellenistic culture, however, houses were enlarged and made as beautiful as the wealth of the owner permitted.

Unlike modern homes, the furnishings of a Roman house were limited to necessary pieces such as couches, chairs, tables, and chests for clothing and valuables. The walls were decorated with paintings often designed to represent buildings and out-of-door scenes so that the room would appear to give a vista and therefore look larger. When Rome conquered the East, wagons loaded with sculpture were brought to Rome as booty. Roman artists made copies of the sculpture, and statues became popular in the homes of the Romans who could afford them. They were commonly placed in the court; and added greatly to its charm.

After the Punic Wars it became more and more fashionable for people of wealth to have country homes called villas (vil'ás). They were often even more elaborate than the city homes.

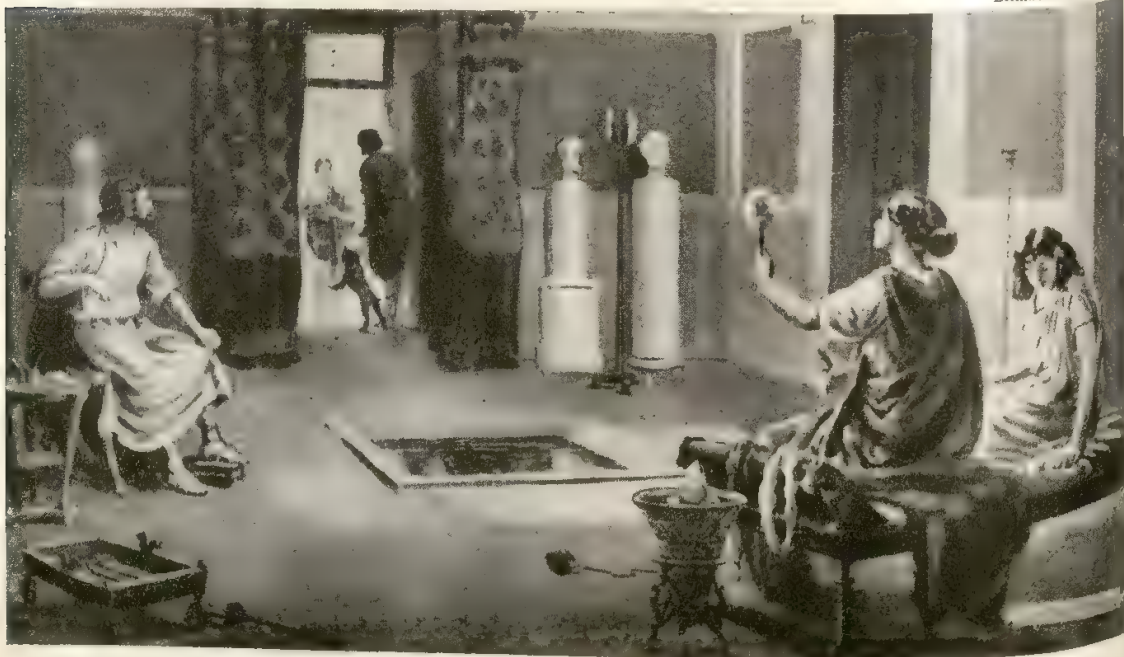
While the wealthy people lived in comfort and luxury in both the country and the city, the houses of the poor were crowded,

*The atrium of the Roman house was roofed except for a section in the center, toward which the roof sloped to throw rain water into the cistern in the middle of the floor.*

unsanitary, and unattractive. The poor in the farm villages lived in miserable one-room houses like those of early Rome. In Rome the poor lived in tenements. As the city grew in population, tenement houses, three, four or more stories in height, became more numerous and less habitable. Most families were crowded into one or two rooms, and since the apartments were heated by fire in open braziers, the fire hazard was very great.

1. Describe a Roman family.
2. In what ways were the lives of Roman women different from those of Athenian women?
3. Describe a Roman house in the days of the early republic.
4. What effect did the contact with Hellenistic culture have upon the Roman homes?
5. What was a villa?
6. Tell how the poor people of the city of Rome lived.

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## CHILDREN'S FATE THE FATHER'S CHOICE

As in Sparta, when a child was born in Rome his father had the right to accept him or to expose him as he saw fit. Public sentiment in Rome, however, usually prevented many children except hopeless cripples from being exposed. If the child was accepted by the father, he was given a name, and a small locket containing a charm to ward off evil was placed around his neck.

**Education** Roman boys were brought up by their mothers until they were old enough to be taught by their fathers or sent to school. The girls, on the other hand, had no teaching except that given by their mothers. They were trained in reading and writing, but since they usually married at the age of fifteen or sixteen most of their training had to be in the art of home making, spinning, weaving, cooking, and supervising the slaves. Boys and girls alike were carefully trained in right conduct, taking their parents as models.

The responsibility of the boys' education rested with the father, and in the early days of the Republic he usually taught them himself. The boys learned to read, write, do simple arithmetic, and to recite the laws as contained in the Twelve Tables. A few boys went on to the grammar school, where literature was taught, and some even to a higher school, for public speaking. After the Romans came into contact with the Hellenistic culture, those who could afford to do so bought Greek slaves to teach their sons. Often poor citizens set up schools to which children could go for a small sum.

The boy arose before daybreak to go to school. If his parents could afford it, he

was accompanied by a pedagogue who saw that he got to school safely, watched over his manners, helped him with his lessons, and was his almost constant companion. The building to which he went was very different from a modern American school. It was usually a shed or lean-to built on the side of another building. It had neither beauty nor comfort. School began at daybreak and lasted most of the day. Discipline was strict and the whip was used freely to help boys along with their lessons.



*This relief of a Roman school was found in Italy. How did the textbooks differ from yours?*

When a boy was about seventeen he became a citizen. He thereupon took off his boy's tunic and dressed in the loose-flowing toga of manhood. Proudly he saw his name added to the written list of citizens.

1. What powers did a Roman father have over his newly born child?
2. Describe the education of a Roman boy. A Roman girl.
3. At what age did a Roman boy become a citizen?

## ROMAN RECREATION

**Roman Holidays** In the early days of Rome, some festivals were held as part of religious observances. As time



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*It was important that the Roman priests sacrifice the right kind and color of beast for each ceremony to their gods. The bull, sheep, and boar were most often used.*

passed the number of festivals grew, but their religious meaning was lost to the masses who attended them for the gaiety and fun. By the time the Republic had come to an end, there were sixty-six days a year in which all business was suspended and a Roman holiday was declared. Two hundred years later the number had grown to one hundred thirty-five days. Obviously, the Romans liked their fun.

There were many reasons, or excuses, for proclaiming a Roman holiday. It might be the return of a conqueror from war, or sometimes politicians seeking office had a holiday declared to gain popularity with the masses of the people. A gladiatorial combat, in which men fought other men or wild beasts to the delight of the people, called for a holiday, as did religious celebrations. At other times a circus, in which daring and reckless drivers raced their chariots around enormous racetracks, drew the people of Rome, always ready for entertainment, from their work. Whatever the occasion, Roman holidays were popular with all classes.

**Baths** Roman baths were centers of recreation and social life. There were many of them in the city. Smaller towns had them, too. In a typical bath there were swimming pools and various kinds of baths—hot, cold, steam, and shower. Besides these, there were libraries, lounging rooms, where the men talked with their friends, lecture rooms, gymnasiums, and club rooms. The baths were the everyday meeting places of the men of the upper classes of Rome.

**Meals** Roman meals became elaborate. The “newly rich” tried to outdo each other in the amount of money they spent on a dinner given for friends. Many kinds of unusual foods were introduced; and the number of courses was extended beyond the usual three until the meal occupied several hours. There is a record of one private banquet at which the following foods were served: oysters, sea acorns, boar’s ribs, fowls, purple shellfish, sows’ udder, boar’s head, ducks, boiled teals, hares, and different kinds of pastry. Such

meals were one evidence of the decline of good taste and morals that came about in Roman society.

**Travel** In the early days of the Republic, Romans stayed at home and had little contact with the outside world. With the conquest of the East, however, those who could afford it, began to travel. Travel came to be considered a part of a young man's education before he set out upon his life's work. Tourists went to see the relics of the past, and merchants and business men attended to their affairs in the various parts of the empire.

Travel had never been so easy and so safe. The Roman army built fine, paved roads that tied the whole Empire to Rome. Many of the roads had footpaths along the sides for pedestrians. They were made over the shortest route. Moreover, there were no longer bandits and robbers on the roads; and people could travel in safety.

Poor men walked on the roads carrying their packs on their backs. The rich rode in

carriages or on horseback, or they were carried on litters. Ships were finely built, too, and a great amount of travel was done by sea. Regular sailings were made between the principal ports of the Mediterranean. In spite of all this, we must not think it was as easy and comfortable to travel in the first century as it is in the twentieth. It was, however, much easier and safer to travel in ancient Rome than in America in colonial times.

Travel was not merely a form of recreation and education for the Romans. It drew the Empire together as almost nothing else could, and it broadened the outlook of both the Romans, who saw much in the provinces to admire, and the provincials (those who lived in the provinces of Rome) who looked in awe at the majesty of the imperial city.

1. What was the origin of most Roman festivals?
2. What were the Roman baths and why were they so important in Roman life?
3. How were guests entertained in a Roman home?
4. Why did the Romans travel so much?
5. What means of travel did they have?
6. What effects did travel have upon the Romans?

*This old relief shows a cutler's shop. The cutler at the right wears a tunic and the customer, a toga.*

Bettmann Archive



## THE ROMANS WORSHIP MANY GODS

**Roman Deities** The early Romans worshiped the forces of nature, but contact with other peoples soon changed their religion. They began to build temples and to make statues of their gods. When they came into contact with Greek traders, the Greek religion influenced their beliefs strongly. So the great gods of the Romans



corresponded to the chief Greek gods, except that they were given different names. Jupiter (jōō'pī tēr) was the sky god and king of all Roman gods. Ceres (sē'rēz) was the goddess of the earth; Neptune, the god of the sea, and Mars, the god of war. Besides these and other major deities, there were hosts of lesser ones.

The Roman family began its day with prayer to the household gods. Nor did the Romans forget their dead. They thought that the soul hovered around the grave and needed food and drink. For this reason the family was important. If a man did not have descendants who were closely attached to him, who would care for his needs after death? The performance of these sacred duties helped mold the Roman character.

**Later Religions** By the close of the Republic, the worship of the old gods had come to mean little to the Romans. Many people followed the teachings of popular philosophies instead of those of any religion. Under the Empire, new types of religions were introduced. Many emperors were deified after their deaths and temples were built to them. Then there was the worship of the state, *Roma*. In addition a number of oriental religions were introduced into Rome by soldiers who served in the East. Such was the confusion in religious thinking when Christianity was introduced in the first century A.D.

1. What peoples had strong influence on Roman religion?
2. Name the chief Roman gods and tell what each represented.
3. How did the Roman religion affect the home life of the people?
4. What new religions were practiced in the first century A.D.?

At the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea was the little province of Judea, a part of ancient Palestine. In the reign of Augustus, Judea had a measure of self-government under King Herod and a council of Jews known as the Sanhedrin (săn'hē drin). There was a Roman governor, too, who was backed by Roman soldiers. In this little province a Jewish child was born who was to have a most profound effect upon the whole world.

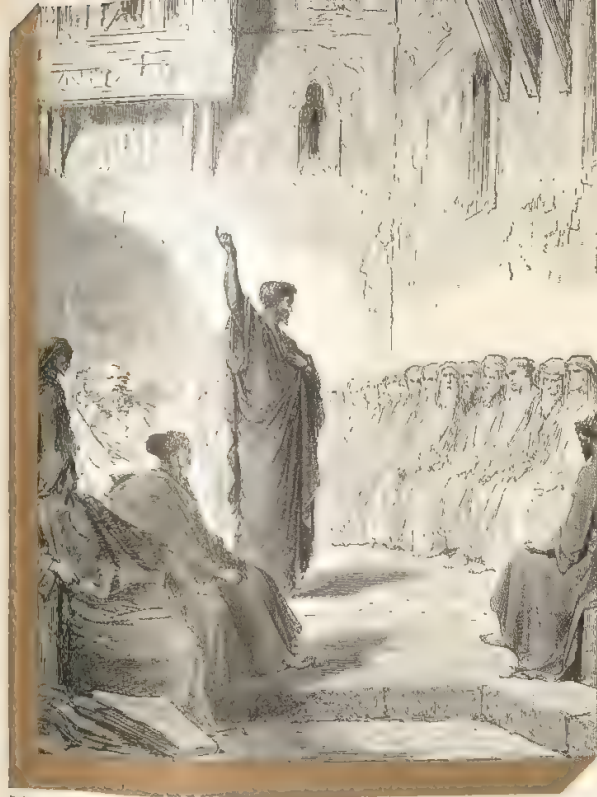
This child, Jesus, was born near the little town of Bethlehem. Little is known of him until he was thirty, when he appeared in public, preaching and teaching. As a Jew, he was strictly trained in the teachings of the Old Testament, and in his preaching he emphasized man's relation to man as well as to God. He summed up his teachings in the commandment: "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart, and with all thy soul, and with all thy mind.

"This is the first and great commandment.

"And the second is like unto it, Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself."

Of all Jesus' followers he had singled out twelve, whom we call his apostles, to be closely associated with him and to train to go on with his work.

The greatest of the early missionaries was not one of the apostles, however. He was Paul, a resident of Tarsus, a city in Asia Minor. He was the son of a Jewish tent-maker and was educated not only in the Hebrew teachings but in the Greek classics as well. Paul traveled widely, teaching in most of the great cities of his day and establishing Christian churches until he was put to death about 67 A.D. He and other Christians had trained so many missionaries



Culver Service

One artist has pictured Paul preaching to the people of Thessalonica, in northern Greece, where he founded a church.

that by 100 A.D. many of the cities of the Roman Empire had well-established Christian churches.

Besides his missionary work Paul wrote a number of letters (Epistles) to the churches that he had founded. These form a part of the New Testament and are among the first written records of the Christian religion.

## CONVERTS TO CHRISTIANITY

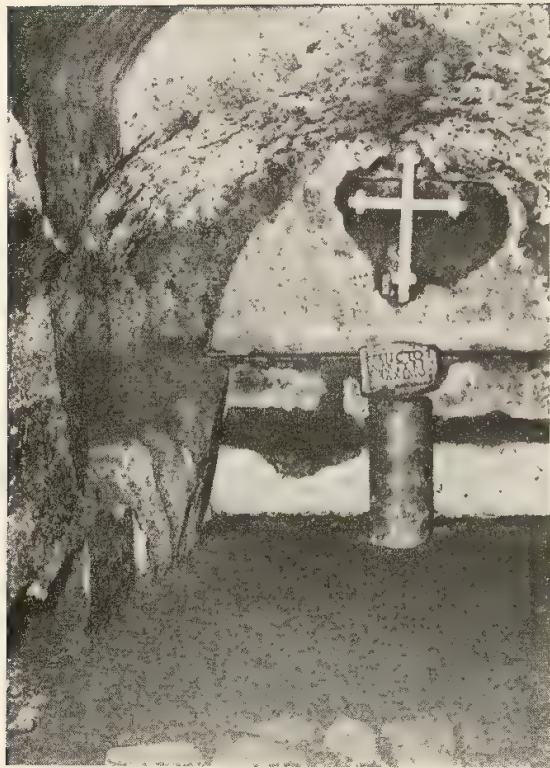
Most of the first converts to the new faith were poor people or slaves. The teachings of the brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God appealed to them. The belief that those who did good in this life would dwell in eternal happiness in the next also appealed to the downtrodden.

### Rome and Christianity

The authorities at Rome paid little attention to any man's religion so long as he performed his religious duties to the state by worshipping the emperor. This the Christians refused to do, and so they were branded as traitors to the state. The first persecution on a large scale in Rome came in Nero's reign (54-68 A.D.). A fire burned a large part of the city. Just how the fire started is not known. Due to the flimsy tenements, fires were common. But it was rumored that Nero had set the city afire so that he could rebuild it to suit himself. When these rumors reached Nero's ears, he blamed the fire on the Christians, who were unpopular with Roman officials. Many of them were rounded up and put to death.

Persecutions continued. To avoid them, Christians sought out old Roman underground burial places in which to worship. These were called catacombs (kăt'ă kōms). Despite these precautions some were caught and put to death. Still the number of Christians grew steadily and rapidly. Many among the upper classes, the lawyers, writers, business men, and officials took up the religion. Finally, in 313 A.D., Constantine issued the first decree of universal religious toleration. In the Edict of Milan, as it is called, he said that all religions would be tolerated in the Empire. From then on, with a few exceptions Christians had the right to worship as they chose.

In the reign of Theodosius (thē ð dō'-shūs) (379-395) Christianity was made the state religion. Emperors thereafter conferred favors upon the clergy, as the officers of the Church were called. They exempted the clergy from military service and the Church from paying taxes. The higher clergy were given authority almost equal to that of governors. In some instances the



Brown Brothers

*In many catacombs symbols carved by the early Christians who worshipped there can still be seen.*

state prosecuted those who refused to be members of the Christian Church.

### **Organization of Christian Church**

The Church developed an efficient organization. The first clergy were the apostles whose successors in office were called bishops. Each bishop came to have a district, known as a diocese (di'ō sēēs), over which he had control. Under the bishops were priests who were delegated by the bishops to perform certain rites. Men could not enter the ministry without a ceremony by which they received the authority granted to the apostles and the clergy personally passed that authority on to their successors from generation to generation. At first all the bishops were called popes. Later the name was applied to the Bishop of Rome

only; and he came to be recognized as the supreme authority over all Christians. His office was called the papacy.

### **Effects of Christianity**

Christianity had a profound influence upon Rome. The teachings of the apostles show that they believed that the Church should be one great organization. That is, it should be catholic (universal) in its scope. Such an organization would demand higher moral standards, too. In Rome manual labor had always been considered degrading; but Christianity dignified human labor, for Jesus was a carpenter and the Church looked upon rich and poor as brothers. It brought a humaneness to the treatment of slaves and the poor. It had a molding influence upon art and literature. The old teachings lost ground and Christian teaching took their place. Though men did not live up to the ideals of the Christian religion, it raised to new heights the former pagan world.

1. Describe the government of Judea at the time of the birth of Jesus.
2. How did the twelve apostles differ from Jesus' other followers according to the teaching of the Christians?
3. Who was Paul of Tarsus?
4. Why did the Christians make their first converts among the poor?
5. What was the attitude of the Roman Empire toward the religion of the people of the Empire?
6. Why did Nero persecute the Christians?
7. How did the Empire change its attitude toward the Christians?
8. Explain the organization of the Christian Church.
9. In what ways did the Christian Church affect life in the Roman world?



## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is the family still an important institution in molding our society?

2. Would you have preferred to be an Athenian or a Roman woman? Why?

3. Why, do you think, did the wealthy Romans build more elaborate homes than the wealthy Athenians?

4. Were the one hundred thirty-five Roman holidays too many for one year? How does the number compare with the number that you have in your state? (Don't forget to count Sundays.)

5. Did the Greeks or the Romans have a better type of recreation? Explain.

6. Why was travel considered an important part of every wealthy Roman's education? Is travel educational?

7. There is an old saying that the blood of the martyrs is the seed of the Christian Church. What does that mean? Is it true, in your opinion?

8. Why did Rome rather than Jerusalem become the "capital" of the Christian world?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

apostle • bishop • catacomb • Catholic • clergy • diocese • Epistle • gladiator • Gospels • Milan Decree • A.D. • New Testament • papacy • pope • Sanhedrin • toga • villa

2. Do you know your dates?

313 A.D.

3. Places to locate on the map:

Bethlehem • Judea • Milan • Tarsus

4. Can you identify these persons?

Constantine • Herod • Jesus • Nero • Paul • Pilate • Theodosius

5. Can you identify these deities?

Ceres • Jupiter • Mars • Neptune

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Here is a list of the chief Roman deities. Find out what each represented and what the Greeks called their corresponding god.

Jupiter • Juno • Minerva • Mars • Apollo • Venus • Neptune

2. Make a model of a Roman house and its furnishings. Explain to the class.

3. Prepare a floor talk on one of the following topics: The Circus Maximus • A Day in a Roman Bath • A Roman Holiday • Slavery in Rome • A House on a Roman Villa • Rome's Most Hated Emperor—Nero

## III. Dramatization

A group may dramatize for the class one of the following scenes:

The ceremony of a boy becoming a citizen • A Roman boy and his pedagogue on their way to school • A Roman boy figuring by means of an abacus the cost of some objects • Two travelers meeting on a Roman road tell each other what they have been doing and seeing

## IV. The Doll Exhibit

Dress dolls in Roman costumes for the class Doll Exhibit.

## V. Picture Study

1. If a merchant of Rome, like the one shown on page 135, made his living by selling the articles you see in the picture, why were the mass of the Roman people poor?

2. Study the details of the picture on page 138. For what were these catacombs used by the Romans? By the Christians?



## The Strength of Rome: Government

### ROMAN LAW

The Romans were less artistic than the Greeks, but they were more practical. Their genius lay in organization, government, and building. We have already seen that they were most successful in governing a great empire for a long period. By intelligent methods they were able to weld Spaniards, Britons, Gauls, Jews, Greeks, Armenians, Egyptians, and many others into a great empire loyal to Rome. Rich and poor, civilized men and barbarians, alike looked to Rome for protection and leadership. In this achievement Rome showed the qualities of genius.

*This mosaic is in brilliant colors. It shows Justinian going to a ceremony with his Council.*

Brown Brothers



Rome commanded leadership largely because of the justice of Roman law. The Roman system of law came into being gradually and over a long period. In the days before the Republic the laws were made and administered by the kings and by the priests of the old religions. Partly because they did not get justice in the priestly courts, the common people demanded reform.

About 450 B.C., after a series of military victories by the plebs over the patricians, the Twelve Tables were drawn up and placed in the *Forum* where they could be seen by all. The Twelve Tables were made for a small agricultural population, but as Rome developed and life changed, the laws were revised to suit the new situations. The Roman Senate from time to time passed new laws. Later the emperors issued decrees that had the force of law. The Roman judges made decisions that applied common sense and justice to the laws. And so as time passed the remarkable system of Roman law developed.

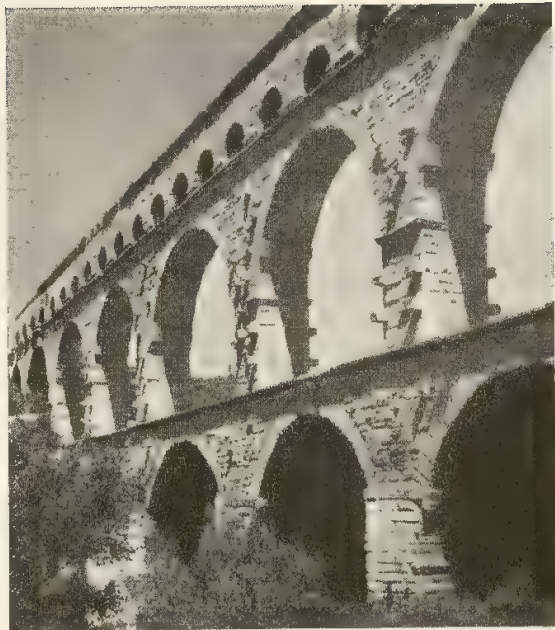
The Roman law did not exist in one written unit; it was found in court records scattered over a wide area and a great many years. Finally Justinian (527-565 A.D.) codified all these laws. This code was a collection of the laws of a thousand years, going

back to the Twelve Tables, set down in orderly form. However, the greatness of the Roman law itself was not due to Justinian, but to the thousands of men who had contributed to the laws that made up Justinian's code. These laws not only were the most wise and humane laws of the ancient world, but they form the most precious inheritance that the modern world has from Rome.

## THE ROMANS WERE BUILDERS

**Roman Engineering** As builders the Romans also excelled. Roman roads were the finest the world ever knew until recent times. Many modern roads in North Africa and in the part of Europe that was once within the Empire are built on the actual bases laid by the Roman builders. This is true partly because those bases were well laid, and partly because the roads were well placed. Bridges were built to span the rivers; and aqueducts brought pure water to the cities. Another engineering feat of the Romans was the walls built along the northern border to keep out the barbaric Germans, and across Britain to keep out invaders.

**Roman Architecture** Early Rome was a city of sun-dried brick houses of one room. Little attention was paid to style before the Romans came into contact with Greek culture. Then they adopted the Greek style of building. Baths, government buildings, the forums (market places) and palaces were constructed on the Greek plan. The impressive appearance of the city began during the reign of Julius Caesar. It was continued by Augustus. Later emperors added forums, temples, palaces, circuses, baths, and amphitheaters.



Rapho-Guillumette

*Roman aqueducts were so sturdily built that many of them may be seen in Italy today in a fine state of preservation.*

A famous Roman building was the Pantheon (pănthē ōn). The main part of the building was round in shape, having a Greek porch with Corinthian columns. The walls were twenty feet thick to support an immense concrete dome which rose one hundred forty feet above the floor. An opening in the center of the dome twenty feet in diameter furnished light. The name Pantheon means "all the gods" for the building was erected in honor of all the Roman deities. Later, when the Christian era began, it was converted into a Christian church and has been used as such ever since.

1. What different nationalities were in the Roman Empire?
2. What was the attitude of the conquered people toward Rome?
3. What were the "Twelve Tables"?
4. What did Justinian do for Roman law?
5. What was the most important characteristic of Roman Law?



6. Why were the Roman roads so outstanding?
7. What was an aqueduct?
8. From whom did the Romans learn to build really artistic buildings?
9. Which rulers rebuilt the city of Rome?
10. Describe the Pantheon.

## THE ROMANS LEARNED SCIENCE FROM THE GREEKS

**Unscientific Methods** The Romans did not make any important contributions to scientific knowledge. They accepted the ideas that they received from the Greeks, and they continued to live by the practices of their early forefathers. They resorted to magic, appealed to the gods, and used the same herbs that their forefathers had used in dealing with diseases. Likewise, in studying the earth around them, the Romans sought to work physical and chemical changes by magic rather than by gathering well-observed facts and experimenting. For example, since gold was scarce, some men spent their time trying to turn lead into

gold. Such men were called alchemists (āl'kē mīsts). They were the forerunners of the modern students of chemistry.

**Medicine** As practical people, the Romans put to use what medical knowledge they possessed. They built hospitals and conducted medical schools. Every large Roman town employed public doctors to serve the poor. Large army hospitals were built far out on the edge of the empire.

The most influential physician of Roman times was Galen (gā'lēn) (129-199 A.D.). He wrote more than a hundred fifty books on medicine. Much of this material he copied from the Greeks or from tradition. However, Galen was unusual for his day in that he carried on some experiments on the human body. He demonstrated that the arteries carried blood instead of air. For many years Galen's work was the authority.

## LATIN LITERATURE RANKS HIGH

**Prose Writers** Along artistic lines the greatest contribution of Rome was

*Gladiators face the emperor in his box at the Colosseum before going into combat. "We who are about to die salute you!" was their cry, as the throngs eagerly awaited the cruel spectacle.*

Historical Pictures Service



in literature. The "Golden Age" of Latin literature covered the latter part of the first century B.C. and the first century A.D. Caesar's *Commentaries* on his wars in Gaul were written as campaign literature, but they have lasted through the centuries as an example of prose in the finest Latin. Cicero, a statesman of the troublesome Civil War period, made great speeches in the Roman Senate. Besides, he wrote letters which have come down to us and essays of enduring charm and power. Livy wrote a *History of Rome*. While it may not be completely accurate, it does give us a picture of the unfolding of Rome's power. Livy believed that Rome should retain her spirit of self-sacrifice and loyalty to duty if she would remain great. Events proved that he was right.

**Horace** One of the best writers of the period was the poet, Horace. He too, saw the old strictness, piety, and loyalty to duty giving way before the pleasures and laxness which came with Roman wealth and contact with the Hellenistic world. Horace tried to point men back to simplicity and quiet living. He wrote that the woes of civil wars came from the carelessness of men *inside* the state. Rome could be strong only through the rule of one man and he was Augustus.

**Virgil** The highest place among the writers of the Golden Age belongs to a shy, retiring man who lived an uneventful life but who spent his time writing poetry which ranks among the greatest in the world. His name was Virgil. In the *Georgics*, Virgil showed his love for the land and the beauties of nature. His greatest work, however, was the *Aeneid* (ĕ nĕ'id). Aeneas was pictured as an ancestor of the Caesars.

The gods had always guided Rome, Vir-

gil said, and the toil and suffering through which men had passed was not for nothing, for under Augustus, Rome had restored peace and order in the world. Poets for two thousand years have received inspiration from Virgil and he is counted among the greatest poets of all time.

1. How did the science of the Romans compare with that of today? Illustrate.
2. Who was Galen?
3. How does Roman literature rank among the great literatures of the world?
4. Tell briefly about the literary work of each of the following: Julius Caesar, Cicero, Livy, Horace, and Virgil.

## THE ROMAN EMPIRE FALLS

**Decline of the Empire** Early Rome had been agricultural, but as we have seen, the Punic Wars made great changes in Roman life. Commerce sprang up and much wealth poured into Rome. But as the rich became richer and prices higher, the poor became poorer. The Republic proved itself unable to cope with the grave economic problem or with the civil wars between groups in the city. Augustus restored peace and order which lasted two centuries, but the question of poverty was not solved. Later emperors tried to regulate prices and wages, but this did not solve the problem either.

Another weakness was the lack of a law of succession to the emperorship. After two centuries of peace, rival emperors provoked civil wars that kept the Empire in constant turmoil. These wars devastated the provinces and caused a decline in population.

The army became weak, too. Lack of gold and silver for coins forced the government to pay its soldiers in tracts of land in-

stead of money. The soldiers, therefore, married and settled on the land; they met only at stated periods for military training. In fact, the army became a sort of militia which did not have the fighting power of the early Roman legions.

Rome was further weakened by a vast slave population. Prisoners of war were used as slaves, and slave traders captured young men and women in the provinces to be sold as slaves in Rome. Because slaves were cheap they were widely used, taking the jobs of the poor people of Rome who could not then make a decent living. Furthermore, slavery created a soft, luxury-loving wealthy class that had few of the qualities of the simple, hardy Romans who had made Rome great.

**Germanic Invasions** Rome, with its creeping weakness and decay, was faced along her northern borders by hordes of barbaric German tribes. They were strong and ruthless and the weakened empire had to let down its barriers gradually and permit them to come in. The first invaders were bands of plunderers who overcame the frontier guards and stole what they could get their hands on. Then they retreated northward again. When the pressure from them grew too strong, Emperor Marcus Aurelius (161-180 A.D.) permitted a group of them to settle within the Empire. Since they were strong, they made good soldiers and so were taken into the army in increasing numbers until they outnumbered the Roman soldiers. Living among the Romans they took on Roman manners and ways of life and often held high offices in the army and even in the government.

In the late fourth century the great migrations started. Fierce tribes of Huns out of

Asia attacked the Goths who had settled beyond the Empire's border north of the Danube. The Huns were a dwarfish people, with small narrow eyes and dark yellow skin. They were swift and able horsemen and were the terror of all with whom they came in contact. The frightened Goths fled by the thousands to the banks of the Danube, begging the right to cross into Roman territory. Thousands were ferried across to safety. When the Empire would take no more, the Goths stormed over the river and overran the Balkan Peninsula. Their leader Alaric (āl'a rik) then led them into Italy. Finally, in 410, his soldiers entered Rome itself. Despite instructions from Alaric, the soldiers sacked the city, murdering, stealing, and destroying.

Whole tribes of Germans then pushed into the Empire, pressed on by the Huns. The Vandals settled in Spain and North Africa, the Angles and Saxons in Britain, while the Franks occupied Gaul. The Empire was no longer strong enough to prevent their coming. The Asiatic Huns, led by Attila, in 452 pushed into northern Italy

*Throughout the history of the world the invasion of one land by the people of another has been common. Is it less common today than formerly?*







Culver Service

*Attila leads his men, riding on his black charger and carrying his sword, supposed to be that of the god of war. Attila was called by the Romans the "Scourge of God" and the "Fear of the World."*

and started toward Rome. Leo I, the Bishop of Rome, met Attila and persuaded him not to attack Rome. Attila went back to the plains of Hungary where he died the next year. His followers over the years intermarried with the natives and were gradually lost from history.

### Effects of the Invasions

The offices of the Roman government, with the exception of the emperorship, fell into the hands of the barbarians. These rough people had lived only a short time in the Empire and knew little about law and order. The efficiency of the government was at once greatly decreased. Finally, in 476, the last Roman emperor was forced to abdicate. A Germanic chieftain put himself on the throne as King of Italy. Other chieftains took over other parts of the Western Empire. And so the once great Western Roman Empire fell apart.

After a few years, Justinian, ruling the Eastern Empire from Constantinople, was able to regain a part of the West, but his hold on it was only temporary. After his

death the West and the East again separated. The West was divided among the various Germanic tribes. The customs and language of the people of the West were soon changed by the barbarians. Caesar, Cicero, and Virgil would not have been able to understand the bargaining carried on by these crude people in the once great Roman Forum.

Many of the people looked with horror and awe upon the end of the Roman Empire, to which most of them belonged. It had stood for so long as a bulwark of civilization that men could not believe it could go to pieces. For a thousand years the world looked back upon the fall of the Empire with sadness, hoping for its restoration in some form that would again bring peace and stability. But the Empire was dead. It had a great and glorious history, and the world was to profit by its achievements long after its greatness became a memory. Rome had adopted and adapted to her own use the culture of ancient peoples before her; and the modern world has derived much of its culture from Rome.

## Contributions of the Romans

With all its faults and weaknesses, the Roman Empire had taken the world a long way forward in civilization. The Greek idea of democracy, which was suited only to a small population, was improved when the Romans built a representative democracy which could be used by vast populations. They welded the Mediterranean world into one unit, spreading a common culture throughout the Empire. Roman writers produced enduring literature. Roman law was so just and humane that the Western World used it as a model.

Although the Empire was gone and a "dark age" had descended upon the Roman world, the great achievements of Rome lived on. Sometimes during the centuries which followed they were hidden for a time, but they were not lost.

1. What problem that had plagued the Roman Republic were the Roman emperors unable to solve permanently?
2. List the causes of the decline of the Roman Empire.
3. Tell the story of the Germanic invasions.
4. Who were the Huns? the Goths? the Vandals? the Angles and Saxons?
5. How did Justinian regain control of the West?

*Roman soldiers, settlers in the Rhine Valley, are paying their rent. A relief of about 300 A.D.*

Bettmann Archive



6. How was Roman law regarded by the Western World?
7. How did people who lived after the fall of the Empire regard the Roman Empire?
8. In what ways did the Romans advance culture and democracy?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why were the Twelve Tables of Roman law so important?

2. Why is Roman law considered Rome's greatest contribution to the modern world?

3. Do you like Greek or Roman architecture better? Why?

4. Do you think the fact that Galen recorded his knowledge of medicine had anything to do with his being the "last word in medical knowledge" for many years?

5. Why is the name *Forum* a good name for a public discussion?

6. Discuss each of the following statements and tell which is true and which is a matter of opinion:

a. The Romans built the best roads of the ancient world.

b. Rome's contributions to government and law are of greater value to the present generation than the artistic heritage from the Greeks.

c. Rome, like Persia, adopted the cultures of other peoples and adapted them to her own needs.

d. Augustus was Rome's greatest emperor.

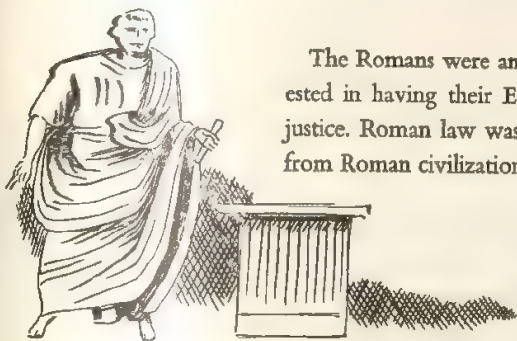
7. Was it internal troubles or pressure from invaders that caused the fall of Rome?

8. Why was the lack of law of succession of the Roman emperors a bad thing for Rome?

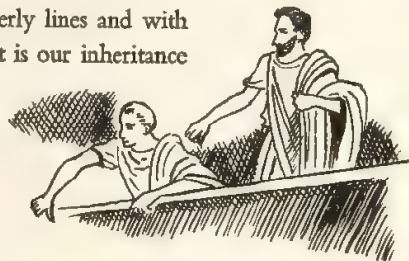
9. For nearly a thousand years after the fall of Rome peoples looked back longingly to the unity it supplied to the Mediterranean world. Why? Is there a similar reason for the yearning people of today have for an effective world organization?



# 4 · Milestones Toward Democracy



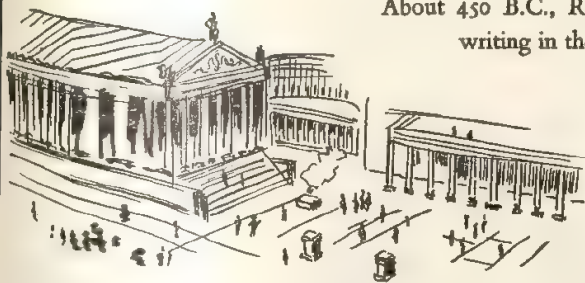
The Romans were an able, practical people. They were interested in having their Empire run along orderly lines and with justice. Roman law was wise and humane. It is our inheritance from Roman civilization.



The Early Republic was governed by an Assembly, elected by the people, and a Senate whose members held office for life. Only the patricians could hold office, however.

Later, the plebs secured some rights. They were permitted to elect tribunes, who acted in the interests of the plebs through the power of veto, by which they checked unfavorable action.

About 450 B.C., Roman law was put into writing in the Twelve Tables.



Gradually the Republic became a representative democracy, with all citizens voting for representatives to governing bodies. This is the form of government that we have in our country today.



Eventually, the Republic disappeared. The Assembly was abolished under the emperors, the Senate lost its ruling power, and the Roman emperor became an oriental despot.

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

amphitheater · aqueduct · circus · basilica · forums · Goths · Huns · Pantheon · Teutons · Vandals ·

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

476 A.D. · 527-565 A.D. · 1453 A.D. ·

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

Balkan Peninsula · Danube River · Hungary · North Africa ·

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

Attila · Marcus Aurelius · Julius Caesar · Cicero · Galen · Horace · Justinian · Leo I · Livy · Virgil ·

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Tell the class what is the present meaning



## 4 · Milestones of Living

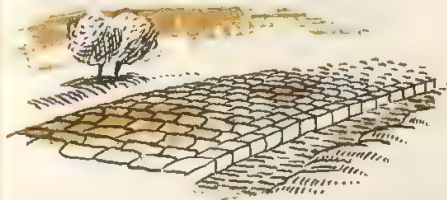
Rome, a small settlement on the Tiber River in Latium, grew in size and strength until it conquered all Italy and eventually ruled much of the known world. The Romans adopted the culture of the people they conquered, especially that of the Greeks. The world profited from this, because the Romans spread their culture throughout the Empire.

### PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

The study of science was not greatly advanced by the Romans, who were more interested in magic than in scientific experiment. However, the Greek student of medicine, Galen, who was a physician in Rome, demonstrated for the first time that the arteries of the human body carry blood, not air, through the body, and added to knowledge of the brain.



As engineers and builders the Romans were geniuses. Roman roads, connecting important points in the Empire, replaced the trails over which Europeans had traveled up to that time. The Roman roads were so well built that some of them still exist. Roman bridges spanned the rivers, and huge aqueducts brought water from the highlands to the cities.



and origin of each of these words: lunatic, jovial, martial, mercurial, saturnine:

2. Make small clay models of the Pantheon, Colosseum, Circus-Maximus, a basilica, or a Roman bath.

3. These are interesting topics for special oral reports to the class:

• The Roman forums • Roman roads • Roman aqueducts • astrology of the Romans • Roman sculpture • Roman mosaics

• Roman bridges • Galen's experiments • Cicero's orations against destroyers of the Republic •

4. Pretend you are a Roman student or business man traveling in one of the provinces. Write a letter home telling what you saw and what experiences you had.

5. Read the article "Augustus—Emperor and Architect" in vol. LXXIV pp. 535–556 of the *National Geographic Magazine* (October, 1938).

## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION



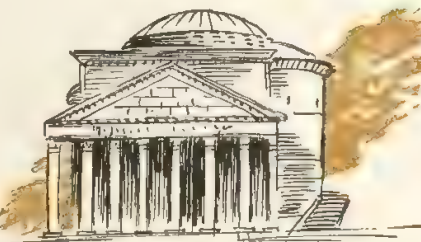
Roman sons, of wealthy families were taught reading, writing, and arithmetic, and some of them went on to a higher school, where they studied literature and oratory. Sometimes poorer citizens opened schools for their boys, but educational opportunities were very limited for large numbers of Roman youth. Girls learned domestic duties only.



The contribution of the Romans to the education of mankind was made by their writers of prose and poetry: Caesar, Livy, Horace, Virgil, and others, whose works have enriched the literature of the world.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS



The ability to create beautiful things was not lacking in the Romans, despite their devotion to efficiency and order. They beautified Rome with magnificent temples and government buildings, the Pantheon, and statues of their gods.

Roman builders used the arch and dome in their architecture. They also introduced the villa as a type of country house for the wealthy, an idea which the modern world copied.

Give a summary to the class.

6. In the Roman forum men stood up and talked on all kinds of topics. Pretend that you are a loyal Roman who sees the weaknesses of Rome in the days before the Germanic invasions. Give a speech to the crowd gathered to hear you.

### III. A Radio Broadcast

Prepare a five-minute radio newscast for the

day when one of the following events occurred:

- A new and much-needed aqueduct is put into operation
- The Pantheon is dedicated to the worship of all the gods
- Marcus Aurelius issues a decree permitting Germans to settle inside the empire
- It seems certain that Alaric will enter Rome tomorrow
- Leo I persuades Attila not to march on Rome
- Word of one of Caesar's victories over the Gauls has reached Rome

#### IV. Picture Study

Why did the artist who made the mosaic shown on page 140 put a halo around the head of Justinian?

#### V. For the Bulletin Board

Collect pictures of Roman architecture for a scrap book or for the bulletin board. Each picture should be labeled properly.

### GOOD READING

CHIDSEY, ALAN LAKE, *Romulus, Builder of Rome*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1934

*Story of the building of Rome based on the tale of the mythical figure of Romulus. Easy reading.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS, *A Day in Old Rome*, Allyn & Bacon, 1925

*This book which deals with a great number of topics on Roman life—religion, home life, sports, the army, architecture, schooling, and many others, will put you back into the days of old Rome.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS, *A Friend of Caesar*, The Macmillan Co., 1900

*Tells the adventures of a young Roman nobleman. You meet such famous people as Caesar and Cleopatra.*

FOSTER, GENEVIEVE, *Augustus Caesar's World*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947

*Gives an accurate and interesting account of Rome in the brilliant period of Augustus.*

GARDNER, HELEN, *Art Through the Ages*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948

GODWIN, STEPHANI AND EDWARD, *Roman Eagle*, Oxford University Press, 1951

*This story is set in Palestine, Rome, and Gaul, in the early days of Christianity. Complications arise when Marcus, the proud son of a Roman, secretly marries a Jewish girl.*

HAMILTON, EDITH, *Roman Way*, W. W. Norton & Co., 1932

*Roman life is presented through its literature as found in Caesar, Cicero, Horace, and Virgil.*

LAWRENCE, ISABELLE, *Gift of the Golden Cup*, The Bobbs-Merrill Co. Inc., 1946

*A fast-moving tale of two patrician children captured by*

*pirates and rescued by Caesar's galleys. The book is a good picture of Rome in Caesar's day.*

MILLS, DOROTHY: *Book of the Ancient Romans*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1927

*An excellent book written in a style that appeals to high-school pupils.*

MITCHISON, NAOMI, *The Conquered*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1923

*A story of Caesar's conquest of Gaul. The hero is a barbarian who becomes a Roman soldier. Written in a popular style.*

PLUTARCH, *Boys' and Girls' Plutarch*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1883

POWERS, ALFRED, *Hannibal's Elephants*, Longmans, Green & Co. Inc., 1944

*A historical novel of a thirteen-year-old helper of the keeper of Hannibal's elephants. Tells the story of Hannibal's march across the Alps.*

SHOWERMAN, GRANT, *Rome and the Romans*, The Macmillan Co., 1931

*The author has carried out his aim "to make learning readable and reasonable" in writing this interesting book on all phases of Roman life, from the description of a Roman wedding to the discussion of Roman law.*

SIENKIEWICZ, HENRYK, *Quo Vadis*, Little, Brown & Co.

*A stirring novel that deals with the court life of Nero, the differences between the pagan world and the early Christians, the burning of Rome, and the massacre of the Christians.*

SNEDEKER, CAROLINE D. P., *White Isle*, Doubleday & Co. Inc., 1940

*This story follows the Claudia family across Gaul and the English Channel to Britain in the second century. The people, the land, the culture, and the Christian religion of that far-off time are interestingly covered.*

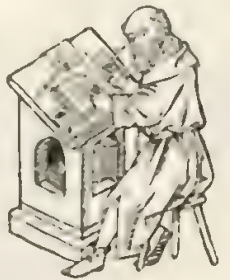
WHITE, EDWARD LUCAS, *Andivius Hedulio*, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1921

*A picture of Roman life at the end of the second century. This is a tale full of action and adventure, vividly told.*

WHITE, EDWARD LUCAS, *Unwilling Vestal*, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1918

*A spirited young Roman girl finds a way out of being a Vestal virgin for thirty years. This book portrays the religion of Vesta, the gladiatorial combats, and Roman life generally in the days of the Empire.*

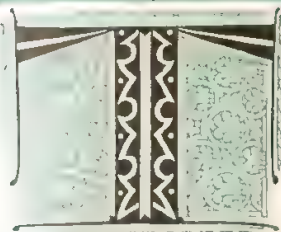






# Le Monde au Moyen Age





he term Middle Ages was given to the period of Western European history that extended from the decline of Rome to the discovery of America. The Western Europeans who lived just after the Middle Ages named it that because they thought it was a period of darkness between the splendor of Rome and the splendor of the civilization they were creating. They believed that nothing of importance happened then. Today, however, we know that the Middle Ages was an important period in itself in Western Europe. Many of our cherished institutions started during that period of about a thousand years.

The Middle Ages is often divided into the Early Middle Ages, from the fall of Rome to about 1000 A.D., and the Late Middle Ages, from 1000 A.D. to the discovery of America. These two periods differed in their character. The first was a period in which civilization was at a low ebb. For about five hundred years there was almost no education, no city life, trade, or good government. The Latin literature was unread, and no new literature was produced. Small chieftains could not understand the Roman laws and issued their own decrees. Cities dwindled in size. Each family depended largely upon itself for the necessities of life since there was not much commerce. Neighborhood wars were common. It was an age of invasion, robbery, and violence, as group after group of cruel people swept into neighboring countries looking for riches. There was very little physical security for anyone. Other groups of people seemed more interested in preparing for the next life than in improving conditions in the world in which they lived. Their religion placed great stress on ceremony.

Beginning in the eleventh century and increasing in the latter part of the Late Middle Ages, life in Western Europe took on a more rapid pace and became more colorful. Education changed and developed, towns grew, beautiful churches and strong castles were built, trade increased, nations developed, and parliaments came into existence. The institutions that came into being at that time form the basis upon which later peoples built.

While these conditions prevailed in Western Europe, the old Eastern Roman Empire continued to exist. Its borders were constantly being clipped, however, by invaders from Asia. It continued until 1453.

Although the Western Europeans did not know it until late in the Middle Ages, all this time between 300 and 1500 civilizations were flourishing in India, China, Japan, and in the Western Hemisphere. In this unit we shall learn how man continued to make progress toward freedom and a better way of life.

**Our title *The World During the Middle Ages* is translated into medieval French and is written in a style popular during the fourteenth century.**





Birth of  
Christ

250 AD

500 AD

750 AD

1000 AD

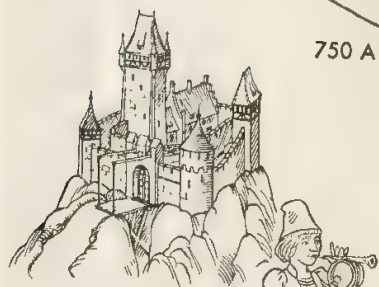
1250 AD

1500 AD

1850 AD

2000 AD

*The Middle Ages*





## Western Civilization Slows Down

**O**ur information about the Germans who invaded and destroyed the Roman Empire comes chiefly from the Roman historian Tacitus (tās'ī tūs). He describes the German land along the Rhine, Vistula (vīs'tū lă), and Oder (ō'děr) Rivers as covered with "wild forests and filthy swamps." It was in such a hard physical environment that the nomadic Germans learned to endure cold and to get their food by hunting or tending their herds of cattle and swine. According to Tacitus the men were hardy and brave, and cowardice was considered a sin. It was a disgrace for a man to survive his chief and return from the battle. He would be reproached for it as long as he lived.

The men spent their time hunting, fishing, and fighting. They forged their own weapons of iron and made jewelry of gold and amber. Most of the rest of the work was done by the women, who also made linen cloth, baked clay dishes, and tanned leather for shoes.

### THE INVADING GERMANS CHANGE EUROPEAN CIVILIZATION

The Germans were organized into several tribes. Their languages were similar, and they were all known as Teutonic (tū-tōn'ic) peoples. Each of the tribes was

ruled by a chieftain who was chosen by an assembly of all freemen of fighting age. The chieftain had little authority over the individual tribesman except in time of war. Important questions of war, peace, and migration were decided upon by the assembly. The leader's personal followers formed his bodyguard in peace and in war. Leaders in time of war were chosen for their daring, and if they failed to do the leading personally, others were chosen in their places. The military chieftain was expected to be the bravest warrior and the best fighter in the tribe. When he grew too old to assume this leadership, his place was taken by another.

### Changes Brought About by the Germans

When the Germanic tribes conquered the Empire, they adopted as much of its civilization as they could. Having lived the rough life of barbarians, they could not immediately take on the ways of the cultivated Romans. Many of them admired the Romans, however, and tried to imitate their culture. The Romans admired the beauty of the fair-haired Germans, too, and it became fashionable for wealthy Roman women to bleach their hair to look more like the Germans.

But there were wide differences between the Roman and German ways of living, and

no matter how much the Germans admired Roman culture, they were unable to adopt the more important Roman practices. In the first place, each German tribe had been accustomed to claiming and holding only a small territory. They continued to do this when they entered the Empire. The Romans, on the other hand, were accustomed to thinking of the whole Mediterranean world as *Roman*. No German leader ever tried to hold together the whole Empire. For this reason the West fell into small sections, each ruled by a chieftain or king.

In the second place, the Germans had never had cities. Up to this time the city-states of Greece and Rome had formed the units around which the civilizations of the world had developed. The Germans liked country life, and the great cities of the Empire dwindled in size. The stronghold of a powerful nobleman, surrounded by a small group of peasant huts, became the center of his power and his life. That is an important change to remember.



In the third place, the Germans were a warlike people. The leaders of the tribes were always their fighting men. Wars between rival chieftains were very frequent, leaving little time for the peaceful pursuits of trade and manufacturing. The learning and education of the cultivated Romans

meant little to the fighting Germans, so they ignored them. As the Germans took a more and more prominent part in Roman life, the old Roman culture declined. This was a tragedy for the progress of the world.

In the fourth place, the laws and the court system which the Romans had carefully worked out were very unlike the Germans' ideas of justice. So the Roman legal system gave way to crude laws and forms of trial based on force and superstition. In carrying out these laws, made by the German leaders, three kinds of trials were used in different localities. They were the ordeal, compurgation (*kōm pūr gā'shūn*), and wager of battle. In the first of these the accused was forced to undergo some painful ordeal such as thrusting his arm into hot water. If at the end of a certain time, usually three days, there was no evidence of infection from the burn, the man was innocent. If infection set in, the man was pronounced guilty. In the second form of trial, compurgation, the accused took an oath saying he was innocent of the crime of which he had been accused. Then he found others to swear that he was not the type of man who would commit such a crime, somewhat as our character witnesses do today. If he did get them to swear to his good character, he was innocent; if he could not, he was guilty. The third form was the wager of battle, a duel between the accused and the accuser. Whoever won was in the right.

After a man was pronounced guilty in one of these crude trials, punishment was prompt, brutal, and revolting. The most common punishment was death by hanging. Another punishment was cutting off the hands or feet. Such severity does not seem to have diminished crime, for lawlessness and crime were very common. It was unsafe to go from castle to castle without



an armed guard; and to go out after dark was to take one's life in his hands. These conditions were very different from the safety enjoyed under Roman law.

Under such conditions life was hard and insecure; neighborhood wars were frequent; ignorance and superstition flourished. Roads fell into disrepair and bridges rotted away. Cities lay in ruin. Fields that the Romans had cultivated were neglected and overgrown to forest and pasture. The Western European world was at a low ebb of civilization.

1. Who were the Teutons? How do we know so much about them?
2. Describe the life of the Germans in their original home.
3. Why was it hard for the Germans to take on Roman culture?
4. Describe the three forms of trial common to the Early Middle Ages in Western Europe.

## THE FRANKS BUILD A LARGE EMPIRE

**Early Frankish Rulers** The most progressive of all the Germanic peoples who came into the Roman Empire were the Franks, who occupied Gaul in the fifth and sixth centuries. Their leader, Clovis (klo'vis) (465?-511), succeeded in getting control of all of Gaul, or what is today France, Belgium, the Netherlands, and much of Western Germany. He was converted to Christianity and Christianity became the religion of France, as the country of the Franks came to be called. Paris was Clovis' capital.

Clovis' descendants were so weak, however, that they were known as "do-nothing kings." The chief officer of the king's



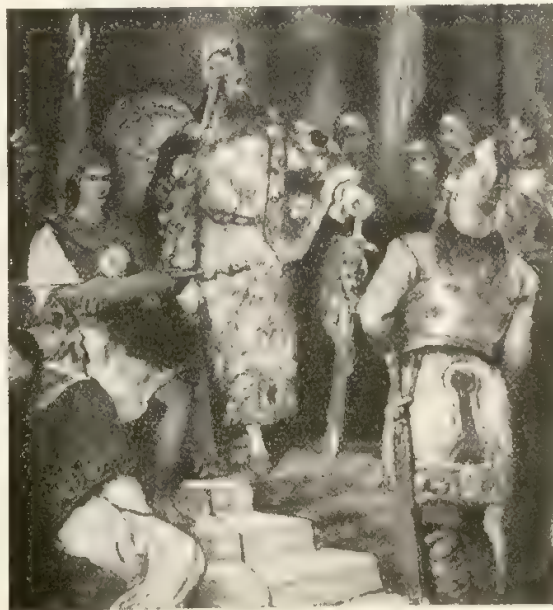
Bettmann Archive

*When Clovis became a Christian, the Church made its first big gain among the Teutonic invaders of the Empire.*

household, called the mayor of the palace, took advantage of the situation to gain the king's power and to make the mayoralty hereditary. A later mayor of the palace, Pepin the Short, thought that he ought to be king in name as well as in power. He asked the Pope to support him for the position. The Pope agreed that Pepin deserved to be called king. In appreciation of the Pope's support, Pepin gave the

*Charlemagne was the first great ruler to come out of the civilization that had arisen after the fall of Rome.*

Bettmann Archive



Pope an area in central Italy which he might rule as his own. That land came to be called the Papal States, and it remained under the Pope's control for hundreds of years.

**Charlemagne** Pepin's son Charles (768-814) became the ruler of the Franks. By means of a number of successful wars he added to his realms until all of the territory from the North Sea to the central part of Italy and from the Atlantic Ocean to the Elbe River was under his rule. Because he expanded and strengthened the Frankish kingdom and for his efforts to improve the life of his people, Charles became known as "the Great." The Latin word for "Charles the Great" was Charlemagne (shär'lē măn). In those days the educated people used the Latin language for keeping records, so Charlemagne was the ruler's official name.

Charlemagne was perhaps the most outstanding ruler in Europe during the entire period of the Early Middle Ages. He not only built the largest empire of any between the fall of the Roman Empire and the sixteenth century, but he had high ideals for

ruling it. His ambition was to create a great Christian empire. He was a religious man and he wanted his subjects to be religious, too. We could hardly admire the method he used in carrying out this ideal, for we are told that he gave his new subjects the choice of becoming Christians or being put to death. He built several churches, the most important of which was at Aachen (ä'kĕn), which was his capital.

Charlemagne allied himself closely with the Pope. During the latter part of the eighth century the Pope was having trouble with the Romans, who disliked him. Charlemagne went to Rome to help him. The Pope's enemies were defeated and he gave part of their lands to Charlemagne to rule. As a reward for acting as his defender, the Pope surprised Charlemagne as he knelt at the altar on Christmas Day, 800, by placing a crown on his head. Immediately the crowd in the church proclaimed him Emperor of the Romans. Of course Charlemagne's empire contained much land that had never been in the old Roman Empire, and the largest part of the old Roman Empire was not included in his realms. But at

*If Charlemagne's empire had continued undivided after his death, the probability is that Western Europe would have made more rapid progress toward culture and learning than it did. With disunion came disorder.*

## CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE



## DIVISION OF CHARLEMAGNE'S EMPIRE, 870 A.D.





**last** the ideal of a Roman Empire, still so **strong** in men's minds, had taken form.

**Titles of Nobility** Charlemagne's realms were too large for one man to rule alone. Moreover, there was almost no money in his day because there were few sources of gold and silver. Therefore Charlemagne gave great tracts of land to men who helped him on his campaigns. These they were to rule. The tracts were called counties, duchies (dūch'iz), and marches, and their rulers were known as counts, dukes, and marquises (mār'kwis). This was the origin of those titles of nobility that have lasted for so many centuries in European countries. This system also built up many vast estates and kept the peasants from getting land of their own. In some countries of Europe, like Italy, the lack of land for small farmers is still a problem.

**Education** There was a revival of learning during Charlemagne's reign. He himself was ambitious to learn to read and write, an accomplishment that very few kings of his day had. He started so late in life, when he was pressed by the cares of his vast realms, that he learned merely to scratch his name. But he wanted his subjects to have some education, also. In his palace he started a school for the children of noble men and his own children. He sent out the following order to the clergy regarding the sons of freemen: "Let every monastery and every abbey have its school, where boys may be taught the Psalms, the system of musical notation, singing, arithmetic, and grammar; and let the books that are given them be free from faults." Charlemagne's plan for education worked so well that a century later the Franks were able to supply teachers to other people.



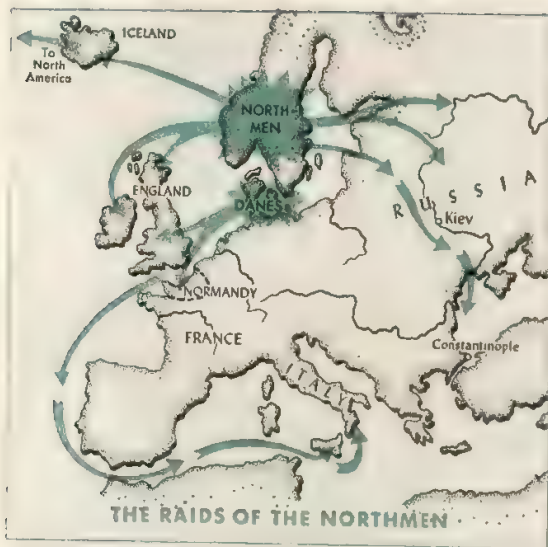
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*Charlemagne visits his palace school. The teacher stands behind him, while the pupils try to look busy.*

**Division of Charlemagne's Empire** This upward trend in civilization was checked, however, at the death of Charlemagne. His descendants quarreled over the vast lands of his empire and the nobles became powerful. By 870 the empire was divided into an East Frankish Kingdom, a West Frankish Kingdom, and a Kingdom of Italy. This laid the foundation for modern Germany, France, and Italy.

**Renewal of Disorder** The division of Charlemagne's empire was not the end of disunity, however. Each of these three divisions was not really a united nation, for the nobles in each had so much military and political power that there could be no real unity. Besides, new invasions were sweeping in upon the states. The nomadic Slavs from the plains of Hungary made numerous invasions of the East Frankish Kingdom. From Spain, people called Moors came in their boats attacking





southern France and Italy. But the most successful invaders were the Northmen, the cruellest and most destructive.

**Northmen** The Northmen lived in Scandinavia and Denmark. They were able seamen and they sailed far up the rivers in their long boats, sacked towns and monasteries, sometimes burned them, and then returned home laden with their booty. They were equally good sailors on the deep sea. Some of them settled Iceland and Greenland, and some of them, under the leadership of Leif (lēf) the Lucky, even visited the coast of North America. This was five hundred years before Columbus, and the world was not yet ready to follow up the discovery of a new continent. Some of the Northmen sailed around the coast of Europe into the Mediterranean Sea and took possession of the southern part of Italy. Another group went overland and formed a kingdom in Russia. A group invaded England and finally set a Danish king on the throne there. Still another group attacked the kingdom of the West Franks. Unable to beat off the attack, the king gave the leader

land in northwestern France. This was called the Duchy of Normandy and its ruler had the title of duke.

It is no wonder that the kings found it difficult to control their kingdoms. They lacked roads for travel between kingdoms and had no money, making it necessary to pay for services in land. Rival wars among nobles and invasions from without added to the troubles of the kings. So the ninth century was one of confusion throughout Western Europe.

1. When and where did the Franks settle in the Roman Empire?
2. What was the importance of Clovis in Frankish history? of Pepin?
3. How did their greatest ruler show that he favored the Christian Church?
4. Tell the story of Charlemagne's coronation.
5. Explain how Charlemagne provided for the ruling of his empire.
6. How did Charlemagne try to improve education?
7. How was Charlemagne's empire divided after his death?
8. Explain the difficulties Charlemagne's descendants had with the barbarians.
9. What was the origin of Normandy?
10. In what other countries did Northmen settle?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What qualities did the Germans have that made it easy for them to overthrow the Western Roman Empire?
2. The Germanic chieftains and the medieval kings were warriors. In the United States we have a civilian rather than a general as the head of our armed forces. Explain this.
3. Which of the three forms of medieval trials was most likely to give justice? Why?

4. Your state spends large sums of money each year on reformatories and prisons. Why is that better than the treatment given criminals in the Middle Ages?

5. Our Constitution provides for complete separation of church and state. Why did both the church and the state in the Middle Ages approve of an overlapping of the two?

6. The Pope crowned Charlemagne "Emperor of the Romans." What was there about the old Roman Empire that the people of the Middle Ages did not have that caused the Pope to wish to restore a Roman Empire?

7. Why would the subjects taught in the schools under Charlemagne not be adequate to fit you for life in the United States today? What subjects that you study today would have been entirely useless in medieval society?

8. For which of Charlemagne's achievements do you believe he should be called "the Great"?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

• compurgation • count • Do-Nothing Kings • duke • marquis • ordeal • Slavs • temporal power of popes • Teutonic Peoples • wager of battle •

2. Do you know your dates?

• 800 • 870 •

3. Places to locate on the map:

• Aachen • Denmark • East Frankish Kingdom • Elbe River • Frankish Empire • Gaul • Hungary • Italy • Normandy • Oder River • Papal States • Rhine River • Russia • Scandinavia • Vistula River •

On a map of Europe show the territory taken over by the Northmen in their expansion between the ninth and eleventh centuries.

4. Can you identify these persons?

• Charlemagne • Clovis • Pepin the Short • Leif the Lucky • Tacitus •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Write an advertisement for a Roman beauty parlor about 400 A.D. urging women to have their hair bleached to resemble the German women. Decorate the advertisement with a drawing if you wish.

2. Thomas Costain in his book *The Conquerors* gives a description on pp. 105-106 of an imaginary trial by ordeal. After reading it, write a description of another type of trial of the Middle Ages.

## III. History Related to the Arts

1. Is there a boy in the class who can make a model of a Viking boat?

2. The dress of the Germans was very different from Roman togas. Will a girl volunteer to dress a doll in the German fashion for the class?

3. The myths of the Germans were interesting. Centuries later the great German composer, Wagner, wrote operas based upon them. Using Dolores Bacon's *Operas Every Child Should Know*, find the story of the Rhinegold, The Valkyries, or Siegfried. After telling the story to the class, play for them a record of part of the opera.

## IV. Interesting Research

1. People of the Middle Ages often used nicknames for their rulers, for example, Pepin the Short. Using a text on medieval history, find several other examples of nicknames. Write your list on the blackboard.

2. The names of our days of the week go back to the Germanic gods. Find out the origin of the name for each day.

## V. Picture Study

Point out ways in which Charlemagne's school, shown on page 159, differed from your school.



## Events in the East Influence Western Europe

While Western Europe was being influenced by new forces, let us see what was happening in the Eastern Roman Empire. The Eastern Empire had survived the shock of invasions and it was to continue to exist for a thousand years after the fall of Rome, or until 1453.

### JUSTINIAN RULES THE EAST

Justinian was the ablest ruler of the Eastern Roman Empire during that long period. We have already seen that he succeeded for a time in reuniting parts of the West to the Eastern Empire and that it was under his direction that the laws of the Roman Empire were codified. Justinian loved orderliness and he had the ability to grasp details. He was a champion of the Christian faith, too. He set out, in 527, to be a great ruler and he succeeded.

Justinian followed the tradition of the Western Roman emperors in building his program. Fortifications were built along the borders of the empire. Cities were rebuilt in the most magnificent style. Among these was his capital, Constantinople. Perhaps the most impressive building there was the cathedral of St. Sophia (sǒ fī'a) with its

central dome 107 feet in diameter and rising 179 feet above the floor. Brilliant mosaics (mǒ zā'iks) made by fitting together small pieces of stone of different colors decorated the walls.

St. Sophia set a new style in architecture, which has since been called Byzantine. The style was introduced into Italy and was often used there. Justinian's legal code and the magnificent buildings he left influenced both the eastern and western Mediterranean worlds for centuries after his death.

**Justinian's Successors** The successors of Justinian were not outstanding emperors. From Constantinople on the European side of the Strait of Bosphorus they ruled an ever-dwindling empire. In the seventh century the Arabs overran a large part of the empire that was in Asia. The Slavs pushed into the European part of the empire and settled in the Balkan Peninsula. In the eleventh century a barbaric people from central Asia, the Seljuk (sĕljōōk') Turks, moved into southwestern Asia and took possession of nearly all of the rest of the Asiatic part of the empire.

Despite its weakness, the Eastern Empire played an important part in the develop-



ment of Western Europe. It stood as a bulwark between the Asiatic invaders and the West, thus giving the West time to develop its own civilization. The language of the East was Greek, and so the learning and literature of ancient Greece, which might otherwise have been lost, were preserved there. The Roman laws, codified by Justinian, were kept alive there, too. At a later date all of this culture was passed on to the West, which had declined in culture under the barbaric Germans.

### A NEW RELIGION ARISES IN ARABIA

While the Eastern Empire was defending itself in the eastern Mediterranean area, a new faith was developing in the city of Mecca on the large peninsula of Arabia. The new religion was the Mohammedan faith. It arose among the Arab followers of a camel driver named Mohammed (mō-hām'ēd).

The Arabian peninsula lies between the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf. It is about one third the size of the United States. Much of it is desert and wasteland. In the days of Mohammed, as today, it was sparsely populated by Bedouins (bēd'ōō'ins) who were nomads, driving their herds from one water hole to another. Along the coast of the Red Sea were fertile stretches. Trade was carried on there; and two cities, Mecca (mēk'kā) and Medina (mā dē'nā), grew up near the coast. In Mohammed's day there was no central government in Arabia. In time of peace each family had complete authority, but in time of war the chieftain of each tribe was the leader of his people.

Mohammed was born of poor parents and was left an orphan when young. He grew up to be a camel driver and worked for a wealthy widow, whom he married. He

believed that he heard messages from God calling him to teach his people:

"Cry, in the name of thy Lord, who  
"Created man from blood."

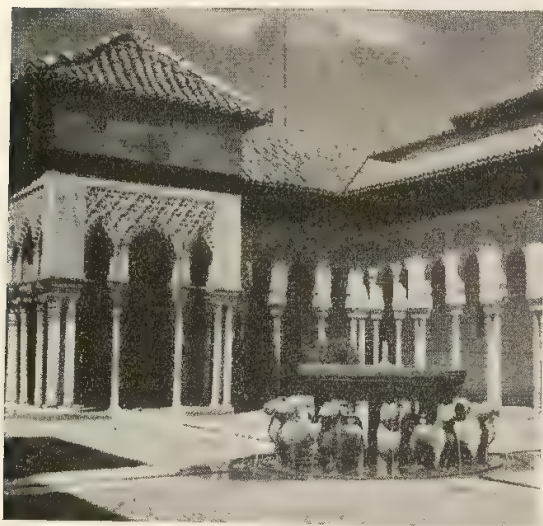
Guided by these messages, Mohammed was inspired to create a new religion. It was not entirely new, however. As he crossed the desert he had come into contact with Christians and Jews as well as with the pagan nomads. From all of these peoples he obtained ideas for his new faith. He tried to get followers among his fellow townsmen of Mecca, but they refused to believe his teachings and plotted to murder him. Mohammed heard of the plot and fled from Mecca to the city of Medina. This flight, in 622 A.D., is called the Hejira (hē jī'rā) and marks the beginning of the new religion. The year 622 is the year 1 of the Moham-

*Mohammed could neither read nor write, but his followers today are numbered in the millions.*

Schoenfeld Collection from Three Lions



medan (mô hăm'ě dăn) calendar. Later Mohammed was able to return to Mecca with his followers, conquer the city, and make it the sacred city of his faith. His followers wrote down his sayings and his teachings in



T.W.A.

*The Alhambra Palace at Granada, Spain, is the finest example of Moorish architecture in Europe.*

Cyprus, and Egypt, were taken from the weak Eastern Roman Empire by force. Mohammed taught "Fear the heat of combat? Hell is hotter! Paradise is before you!" So the Mohammedans pushed across North Africa into Spain, and even across the Pyrenees into France before they were checked. In 732 Charles Martel (mär těl') led the Franks in turning back the Arabs at the Battle of Tours in central France, and the invaders were gradually pushed south of the Pyrenees, into Spain.

The Arabs also pushed eastward. They took Persia and captured the old cities of Bokhara and Samarkand. They conquered the valley of the Indus River. In doing so they had pressed to the border of China. Their conquests gave them control over the caravan routes into China. They moved their capital to Baghdad in 750. By then the Arabian Empire included the territory from Spain on the West, through North Africa to China and into India.

**Moorish Culture** The Arabians who settled in Spain were called Moors. The Arabs in the East learned much from the cultured peoples they had conquered. They were no mere imitators, however. They developed a culture of their own. This civilization was spread westward through North Africa and into Spain. So Spanish, or Moorish, civilization was much more advanced than that of the Germanic peoples who were occupying the rest of Western Europe. The Arabs introduced their Arabian numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, etc. including 0, into Spain. These were easier to read and write than the Roman numerals. This system the Arabian mathematicians had borrowed from India. The Arabs brought new commodities with them, too, names of which have come into European

a book which is known as the Koran (kō-răn'). This is the Mohammedan bible.

Mohammed taught that there is only one God, Allah, and Mohammed was his greatest prophet. Mohammed taught that there will be a judgment day and a resurrection from the dead. All faithful Mohammedans were to worship five times a day, give money to the poor, go on a pilgrimage to Mecca at least once in their lifetime, and keep their bodies clean.

### **Spread of Mohammedanism**

The new religion spread rapidly through Arabia. Then the Arabs united to go on conquests to spread their faith further and to obtain booty. The lands along the eastern Mediterranean, Syria, Palestine, Crete,



languages. Cotton, syrup, alcohol, sofa, coffee, and muslin, for instance, are of that origin. They introduced new fruits, like apricots, peaches, lemons, and oranges. Beautiful rugs, tapestries, and cloth were made in Spain. The Moors used algebra and they knew much about medicine, geography, astronomy, and something of chemistry. They set up universities of such reputation that even some Christians sent their sons to them. Spain under the Moors surpassed all of Western Europe in learning.

The architecture of the Moors showed the influence of the Byzantine architecture of the East. Their places of worship were called mosques (mōsks). They were built around a court and from their towers the faithful were called to worship. The use of statues or pictures of human beings or animals in the mosques was forbidden. Mosaics of great beauty in geometric designs were used for decorative purposes. Pillars and round arches were common in the interiors. Beautiful mosques like those of Cordova and Seville and fine palaces like the Alhambra have given inspiration to architects through succeeding centuries.



**Trade** While spreading their Mohammedan faith, the Arabs had also brought about close trade relations among the different parts of the Moslem world. Ships from the eastern Mediterranean were seen in the ports of Italy and Spain. Caravans from the Nile Delta traveled into the heart of Africa to get wood, fruits, and other commodities. The Arabs established trading posts along the west coast of India and even carried goods to China and Japan. Arabian ships plied along the eastern coast of Africa. The rich trade of India and





the eastern Mediterranean was held by the Arabs until the twelfth century.

**Baghdad** Another center of Moslem civilization was the city of Baghdad on the Tigris River not far from the ruins of ancient Babylon. A variety of occupations were carried on and people from many parts of the world lived in Baghdad. Jews, Persians, Christians, Turks, and Arabs all had their community sections. Busy streets were lined with colorful shops selling perfume, silk, cotton, baskets, leather goods, and many other products. Slaves and horses were also traded. Baghdad was a rival of Constantinople as a center of world trade.

Do not think that the whole Mohammedan world was prosperous and highly developed, however. Between these widely scattered centers of civilization in Baghdad, Spain, Syria, and Egypt were vast stretches of lands that had been devastated by the armies of the invading Arabs. The brilliant centers of culture were in marked contrast to the desolate surrounding countryside. Yet the culture of those centers spread gradually to surrounding peoples.

*The Kremlin, on the right of Red Square in old Moscow, was built by Ivan III. It was the home of the tsars. St. Basil's medieval cathedral, with its bulbous domes, is both Byzantine and Oriental.*

1. Locate and describe the geography of Arabia.
2. Tell the story of Mohammed's life.
3. What significance has the Hejira to Mohammedans?
4. What were the chief teachings of Mohammed?
5. Who was Charles Martel?
6. What lands did the Arabian Mohammedans conquer?
7. List the contributions of the Mohammedans to the culture of Spain.
8. Describe a mosque.
9. Describe the trade of the Arabs in the Middle Ages.
10. Describe the city of Baghdad.

## RUSSIA EMERGES IN THE LATE MIDDLE AGES

In their extensive trading the Moslem merchants came into contact with Slavs to the north of them. What is now Russia was a vast, swampy land stretching from the Arctic Ocean southward to the grassy, fertile plains and the Caspian and Black seas. Eastward, too, the plains stretched,

Sovfoto



interrupted only by the low-lying Ural (ŭ'rāl) Mountains. Russia has many navigable rivers, some flowing north to the Arctic and some south into the Caspian and Black seas. The plains were sparsely inhabited by herders and farmers.

**Northmen** In the ninth century a group of Northmen, the Swedes, pushed into the plains, traveling along the rivers. The first Northman to establish a kingdom there was Rurik (rŭor'ik) who set himself up as a ruler in the north. By 850 a similar kingdom was established in Kiev (kē'yēf), farther south. Later the two were united and spread into the lands farther east, including Moscow. There was much intermarriage with the native Russians until the identity of the Northmen was lost.

**Influence of the Eastern Empire** In 989 the ruler of Russia married the daughter of the East Roman Emperor. There had been trade with the Empire for some time. As early as 911 a commercial treaty was made with them. The Empire had also introduced its religion, the Greek Orthodox (ŏr'thŏ dŏks), into Russia. From then on, the Eastern Empire exerted an increasing influence upon Russia in religion, trade, and civilization and Russia had very little to do with Western Europe.

**Tartars** For more than two centuries Russia progressed along the same lines until, in the early thirteenth century, a horde of nomadic horsemen swept out of Mongolia across the country. These were the Tartars (tär'tär), or Mongols, related to the earlier Huns who had also come out of Asia. The Tartars established a far-flung empire. By ruthless methods they had conquered China and Mongolia and now

they occupied the small scattered states of Russia and of Poland farther west. From there they pushed southward until the Mohammedan ruler of Egypt stopped them in Syria. Their vast empire stretched from Novgorod to the Persian Gulf and from the Don River east to the Pacific Ocean. The chief figure in the Tartar expansion was Genghis Khan (jěng'gĭs kăn).

The Mongol invasion strongly influenced Russia. Oriental dress, food, and customs were introduced. While the Mongols permitted the Russians to keep their own religion, they compelled them to serve in the army of the Mongol ruler, the Great Khan; the Mongols also levied heavy taxes on the Russians. Much of Russia remained under this Oriental influence for many years.

**Ivan III** The strength of the khans gradually ebbed and the Russian princes took more and more of the power into their own hands. Scattered independent duchies appeared. Finally Ivan III (i vān') (1462-1505), the ruler of the duchy of Moscow, gathered several small duchies together. He set himself up as ruler

*The log house, a wagon sled on runners, and the village well are typical of a medieval Russian community.*

Bettmann Archive





*A few years after the death of Ivan, the Mongols extended their realms to India. One of the world's greatest rulers, Akbar, a Mongol, ruled India for over fifty years. This was shortly after Columbus discovered America.*

under the title of "Autocrat of all the Russians." He rebuilt the palace in Moscow, called the Kremlin.

Ivan was ambitious. He wanted Moscow to be the "Third Rome" to replace Constantinople, which many had considered the "Second Rome," or the heir to the power and culture of the first Rome in Italy. Ivan was a staunch defender of the Orthodox Church and a strong opponent of the Pope in Rome. At the close of his reign, Russia was still suffering from the three centuries of backward Mongol rule, but it had come to be considered the chief Christian state of Eastern Europe. Since Constantinople had fallen to the Moslems in 1453, Russia now succeeded the Eastern Roman Empire as a center of Christianity.

1. Describe the geography of Russia.
2. What people took control of Russia in the ninth century? Who was their leader?
3. What were the chief towns of Russia in the ninth and tenth centuries?
4. How did the Eastern Roman Empire influence Russia? When?

5. Who were the Tartars? How did they influence Russia?
6. What was the extent of the Mongol Empire?
7. Who was Ivan III? What influence did he have upon Russia?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Of what value is Justinian's Code to the world today?
2. Why did the Eastern Empire live for a thousand years after the fall of the West?
3. If the Moors had so much culture to offer Europe, was it good for the Franks to drive them back at the Battle of Tours?
4. Why has the territory between the Persian Gulf and the Mediterranean Sea, over which the camel driver Mohammed traveled, often been spoken of as the "crossroads of civilization"?
5. According to the Mohammedan calendar, what is the number of this year?
6. Did Jesus teach that his religion should be spread by the methods later advocated by Mohammed?



## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• Alhambra • Allah • Arabian numerals • Bedouins • hejira • Koran • Kremlin • Mongols • mosaics • mosque • Orthodox Church • Seljuk Turks • Tartars • "Third Rome" • Byzantine •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• 527 • 622 • 732 • 850 • 1453 • 1462-1505 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map

• Arabian Desert • Arctic Ocean • Baghdad • Balkan Peninsula • Black Sea • Bokhara • Caspian Sea • China • Constantinople • Cordova • Cyprus • Don River • Japan • Kiev • Mecca • Medina • Mongolia • Moscow • Novgorod • Samarkand • Seville • Strait of Bosphorus • Syria • Tours • Ural Mountains •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

• Abraham • Genghis Khan • Ivan III • Justinian • Charles Martel • Mohammed • Moses • Rurik •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. In this chapter we touched upon three interesting men about whom you may want to learn more. Select Justinian, Mohammed or Ivan III for further reading and report to the class.

2. Pretend that you were a traveler seeing one of the sights listed below. Describe the scene in a letter which you would send home.

• Mosque of Cordova • The shrine in Mecca containing the Kaaba • Tower of Seville • The Kremlin in Ivan III's day • St. Sophia Cathedral • City of Baghdad.

3. Using the World Almanac find out the total number of Mohammedans in the world today as compared to Christians. In what countries do large numbers of Mohammedans live? Give the class a report on your findings.

### III. For the Bulletin Board

Collect pictures of Moorish architecture. Mount them and write a caption under each pointing out the characteristics that make it Moorish. Display them on the bulletin board. Gardner's *Art Through the Ages* will help you.

### IV. History Related to the Arts

1. Make a collection of pictures or draw pictures of the dress of the Bedouins, the Tartar invaders of Russia, and the Norsemen. Explain them to the class and show how each dress suited the needs of the people wearing it.

2. Using pieces of colored paper instead of stones, make a mosaic to display on the bulletin board.

### V. At the Blackboard

In parallel columns place the important people and events of the Frankish Empire, Moslem Empire, and Eastern Roman Empire as studied in chapters 13 and 14. Dates at the left hand side of your paper will help you place events in their proper time. In this way you can see what events took place at the same time in different parts of the three empires.

	Frankish Empire	Moslem Empire	Eastern Roman Empire
400 A.D.			
500 A.D.			
600 A.D.			
etc.			

### VI. Picture Study

1. What features of architecture used in the Alhambra, page 164, did the Moors borrow from previous civilizations?

2. What name does the square before the Kremlin, pictured on page 166, have today? Compare its use as shown in this picture with the use for which it is noted today.



## The Christian Church Dominates Western Europe

No real knowledge of Medieval Europe would be possible without the study of the Christian Church, because it was the most influential organization of the time. The Church preserved the culture of the past and gave it to succeeding generations. It touched the life of every individual in many ways and it molded the character of many institutions. It was an influence for good in an otherwise rude and brutal society. It tried to prevent warfare. The Church pointed men to better treatment of the poor, the serfs, and all unfortunate people. Churchmen built hospitals for the care of the sick and maintained schools and universities for the education of the youth. Although the clergy themselves often did not live up to the teachings of the Church, the Church was constantly pointing out a more kindly and righteous way of living.

### THE CHURCH'S POWER

There were several reasons why the Church came to have such influence. In the first place, the fact that the Church was trying to aid all types of people encouraged confidence in it. The people came to look

to it for guidance in matters outside religion.

In the second place, the Church was rich. Its sources of wealth were many. Kings and nobles granted it lands, built churches and monasteries and endowed them with rich furnishings. The heads of the Church ruled over granted lands just like any count or duke. In addition to land grants of one sort or another, the Church levied a tax, known as a *tithe*, on its members.

In the third place, the clergy were the only educated people of the time. Kings had to have the services of the clergy in matters of government where reading, writing, and accounting were required. In this way the clergy gained great influence in governments. Also the education of the young was in their hands and so they influenced rising generations.

In the fourth place, the Christian Church had an efficient organization, which made it possible to reach out and touch all classes of people. No matter where a person went he was in touch with the Church. It overstepped all political boundaries and all class distinctions and made its influence felt everywhere.

The teaching of the Church made for strength also. Every child was baptized into the Church when a mere baby. The important steps in his life such as marriage, the baptism of his children, the registering of wills, and the burying of the dead were under the guidance of the Church. It was a serious matter to revolt against the Church or to disbelieve or disobey its teachings. Such people were called heretics and their crime was known as heresy.

**Origin of Monasticism** Perhaps nothing played a greater part in carrying out the mission of the Church and in combating ignorance than monasticism (mō nās'tī sīz'm). Even as the ignorance of the barbarians was winning over the culture of the Romans, this new institution that was to help restore civilization was spreading through Western Europe. Monasticism started in the lands around the eastern Mediterranean soon after the beginning of the Christian religion.

The earliest monks were hermits. They lived in caves in the Arabian and Egyptian deserts, and had no connection with the rest of the world. They subsisted on wild berries and fruits found on the oases or on the scanty food brought to them by religious people in the vicinity. They spent most of their lives praying, trying by means of such a simple life to escape from the world and its temptations and to prepare themselves for the next world.

**Benedictine Rule** Such seclusion did not appeal to most of the people of Western Europe, yet there were those who wished to separate themselves from a world centered around war and turmoil. They built their rude huts near each other, and so there grew up in the West groups of

monks. Now all people living in groups must have laws to guide them in order to make their community run smoothly. So several sets of rules were made to regulate the lives of those living in such communities. One of these sets of rules came to be generally accepted, the Benedictine Rule.

St. Benedict had been a hermit himself. Gradually other monks came to him for advice and help and he eventually became the head of a community of monks. His rule was based on the three vows that all monks took: chastity, poverty, and obedience. These vows were taken literally. The vow of chastity meant that a monk could not marry. Poverty meant that a monk could own nothing individually, not even his clothing. And he must give absolute obedience to the head of the monastery, called an abbot.

The Benedictine Rule contained other points besides these three widely adopted vows. It provided that the abbot should be elected by the monks. Every monk had to work with his hands and had to study each day. Before a man could become a monk he had to go through a period of trial to make sure that he was suited for that type of life. The Rule of St. Benedict served to set a standard for the monastic life throughout Western Europe.

*These youthful monks are probably discussing theories of logic or principles of theology.*

Bettmann Archive





**Work of the Monks** The Benedictine Rule increased the value of the monasteries to the world. For one thing, and this was very important, the work of the monks dignified manual labor. Heretofore manual labor was performed only by slaves. But work was not beneath the dignity of any member of a religious order, no matter what his station in life had been before he became a monk. And the results of this labor helped to change the world. The monks improved farming by their careful methods and study of plant growth and animal life. They built beautiful buildings, especially churches. They took in travelers who would otherwise have had no place to stop. They maintained the only hospitals of the time. In all these ways the labor of the monks enriched the world.

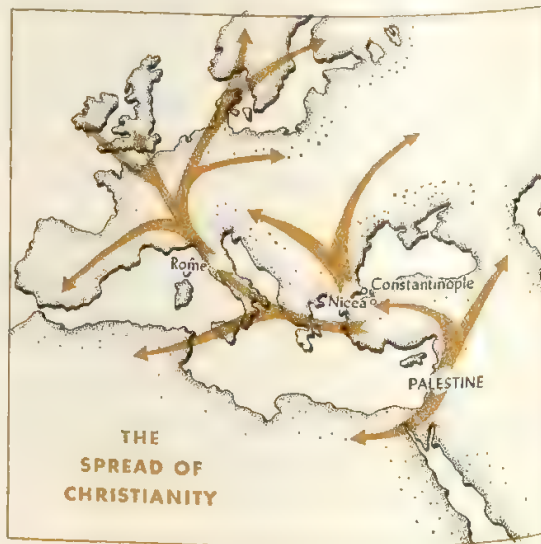
**Preservation of Learning** The monks maintained the only schools of the time as well, thus keeping alive the spirit of learning among a few people of each generation. In the monasteries educated men made copies of Latin literature and the books of the Bible. At a time when all others were ignoring or destroying the great works of the Roman writers, the monks preserved that literature for future generations. These copies were works of art.

A few monks wrote original works. St. Augustine, the bishop of Hippo in North Africa, wrote his famous book, *The City of God*, in defense of Christianity. In many monastic chronicles there appear what the authors thought were the important events of the time. Perhaps the most famous of these is the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, which records the great events in the history of England in the Middle Ages. It is from these chronicles that we get much of our knowledge of the Middle Ages.

**Missionary Work** The spread of Christianity was largely the result of the work of the monks, too. Another monk, also named St. Augustine, was sent by the Pope to carry the Christian religion to England. There he found a Christian queen and a weak Church already established. In a struggle that followed between the two slightly different versions of the Christian faith, the Roman Church won out. In this way the English Church came under the Pope.

Other monks became famous missionaries. St. Patrick spread Christianity in Ireland, while St. Boniface preached the gospel to the people in the forests of Germany and northern France.

1. Why did people want to be monks?
2. How did hermits and monks of the West differ?
3. Who was St. Benedict? What did he contribute to monasticism?
4. What was the Benedictine Rule?
5. What services did the monks perform for the people of their time and later?
6. Mention some outstanding monks of the period and tell for what each is noted.



## OUTSTANDING POPES INCREASE THE POWER OF THE CHURCH

**Leo I** The power of the Church was increased by the growing power of the papacy (pā'pā sī). A number of strong men became popes during the Middle Ages and made their office felt not only inside but outside the Church. The first of these was Leo I. He was credited with persuading the fierce tribe of Huns to turn from Italy.

**Gregory I the Great** Gregory the Great (590–604) exerted even more influence upon the Church. He came from one of Rome's wealthy families, but he gave up his riches to become a monk. When the ruling Pope died, Gregory was the choice of the people and the clergy of Rome for that position. He undertook his duties with understanding and vigor. The Lombards had overrun Italy and had been molesting Rome and other cities. Law and order had broken down in Rome. The Pope had the most respected position in the city and Gregory used his position to restore order. By taking over the rule of Rome he laid the foundation for the *temporal* power of popes, that is, the power to rule as an earthly ruler. It was also during Gregory's rule as Pope that missionaries were sent to Germany and Britain.

**Innocent III** Perhaps the papacy reached the height of its power under Innocent III (1198–1216). He did not hesitate to censure the strongest rulers. The best example of his power is shown in his relation to King John of England.

The position of Archbishop of Canterbury, the chief Church position in England, was vacant. The monks of Canterbury, as was the custom, chose a man whom they wanted and sent him to the Pope in Rome.



Bettmann Archive

*Giotto, a painter of the Renaissance, tried to show people in natural settings, as St. Francis is here.*

When King John heard of the choice he was very angry, for he had his own candidate for the office. Innocent III refused to accept either of the men and named a third one whom John refused to accept. The Pope, to force John to do his bidding, placed England under an *interdict*, that is, he closed all the churches of England and no services were permitted. To the people of the Middle Ages that was a terrible thing. Marriages could not be performed; the dead could not be buried from the churches; children could not be baptized.

John, however, instead of giving in to the Pope, seized the lands of the bishops who sided with the Pope. Many of them fled from England. When the interdict did not bring John to terms, the Pope excommunicated John, thus refusing him all the rites of his religion. Even this might not have caused John to submit, but because he was having trouble at home with his nobles, he finally had to give in and accept the Pope's choice.

Two powerful religious orders that helped to spread the faith of the Church and to uphold it in Europe got their start in the days of Innocent III. They were the Dominicans and the Franciscans. The founder of the former was St. Dominic, a Spaniard.

The Dominicans did missionary work and acted as teachers. Most of the teachers in the universities were members of this order.

The founder of the Franciscans was St. Francis of Assisi (à sē'zē), the son of rich parents. He put aside his fine clothing and gave up his inheritance to live the life of a beggar. Gradually a few followers attached themselves to him and he was given permission by Innocent III to found an order of friars. His order differed from an order of monks in that they had no monastery in which to live. They wandered about, preaching to the poor, caring for the sick, and doing good.

### **A Succession of Weaker Popes**

Innocent's successors were not the strong men that he had been. In the fourteenth century the popes fell under the influence of the French kings, and for seventy years the popes lived at Avignon (à'vē nyôn') in France, where the French kings dominated them and the affairs of the Church. In England, where there was hatred of the French, there was much criticism of the Church and the clergy during this period. Moreover, England refused to recognize the Pope as the king's overlord any longer. The kings would not pay the tribute that John had promised when he accepted England from the Pope.

1. Why was the Church the most powerful and important institution of the time?
2. What were the sources of wealth of the Medieval Church?
3. For what was each of the following popes noted: Leo I, Gregory I, Innocent III?
4. Tell the story of the quarrel between Innocent III and John of England over the Archbishop of Canterbury. How was the disagreement settled?

5. Explain the terms *interdict* and *excommunication*.
6. Who were the Dominicans? The Franciscans?

## **THE CHURCH'S CONTROL OF EDUCATION**

The great mass of people during the Middle Ages had no schooling. The peasants learned to plow the fields, reap the grain, care for the flocks, and do other work necessary to provide food and clothing for themselves and their masters. The sons of noblemen received education that fitted them for the use of arms and for knight-hood only. These were the usual forms of training. "Book learning" was not common and very few people were able to read and write. Charlemagne started a school in his palace for the sons of noblemen and encouraged monasteries to do the same for the sons of freemen, but at that time freemen were few. King Alfred the Great did the same in England a century later. But these efforts were exceptional and the advantages of schooling were open to few.

**Church Schools** Nearly all the schools that did exist were in the hands of the Church, and Latin was the language spoken and taught. Most of the monasteries had schools for boys. Some cathedrals and even parish churches maintained schools in the Middle Ages. The curriculum consisted of what were known as the seven liberal arts: grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy, and music. But while the subjects were the same, the quality of education given varied from place to place and from time to time according to the teachers. Since books had to be written and copied by hand, textbooks



were scarce and most of the teaching was done orally. Student life was hard because the hours were long and the pupils sat on the floor in a bare and unheated room.

**Universities** As a demand for learning grew, universities developed in the thirteenth century. After finishing at the lower schools, the pupils could go to the university. The earliest ones were at Bologna in Italy, Paris in France, and at Oxford and Cambridge in England. Scholars from all over Western Europe came to these schools. At first there were no buildings; the teachers organized into guilds and opened classes in rented rooms. In Paris most of the rooms were on "Straw Street," so named because the schoolrooms had straw on the floors to keep the pupils warm. Later, buildings were erected to house the school, but the emphasis was always on the teacher and his ability rather than on the buildings or equipment. As for equipment, there was none except a few books.

As in modern schools, some of the students were intelligent and some dull; some were studious and some lazy; some were interested in improving themselves and others were rowdy. The rowdy element often got into fights with the townspeople. In Paris, in 1200, five students were killed in such a fight. The townspeople, on the other hand, frequently took advantage of the students, overcharging them and mistreating them in other ways. Fearing that the students, who brought money into Paris, might leave and move the university elsewhere, King Philip Augustus issued the following order, which tells us a good deal about university student life in the thirteenth century: "Who does not pity those who exile themselves through love for learning, who wear themselves out in

poverty in place of riches, who expose their lives to all perils and often suffer bodily injury from the vilest men? This must be endured with vexation. Therefore, we declare by this general and perpetual law, that in the future no one shall be so rash as to venture to inflict any injury on scholars, or to occasion any loss to them on account of a debt owed by an inhabitant of their province—a thing which we have learned is sometimes done by an evil custom."

It was in these medieval universities that the practice of awarding degrees was started. The first degree to be given was the A.B. (bachelor of arts) degree. This was often followed by further study for an M.A. (master of arts) degree. This degree showed that the person was capable of teaching. Some universities also granted a Ph.D. (doctor of philosophy) degree.



Combine Photos

*Short gowns for undergraduate students and long gowns for graduate students have always been worn at Oxford.*

**Outstanding Scholars** The greatest thinkers of the Middle Ages lived in the thirteenth century and were churchmen connected with the universities.

Thomas Aquinas (ä kuí'nās) was one of them. About 1200 the works of the ancient Greek philosopher Aristotle were translated into Latin and scholars began studying them. Churchmen feared that these works would contain teachings contrary to the Christian faith. The Church tried hard to prevent any such doctrines from being taught. It was Thomas Aquinas who wrote a treatise on theology (the study of religion) in which he explained that the teachings of Aristotle did not conflict with those of the Church.

**Education for Girls** Girls had far less opportunity for education than boys. In the castles the girls were taught manners, some music, needlework, and sometimes reading. Those who entered convents learned to read and write so that they could read the services of the Church. Sometimes they became scribes and often they illuminated books. Perhaps their greatest skill was needlework. No more beautiful needlework has ever been done than that of the medieval nuns. The peasant girls were taught to work beside their mothers. They married early and carried on their work as their mothers had done.

*Romanesque and Gothic architecture are quite different in appearance. Which type of church do you prefer?*

Rapho-Guillumette



T.W.A.



If you will compare the great opportunities for education that you have on every hand with those of the Middle Ages in Western Europe, you will see why life changed so slowly during that period. Culture was kept at a low ebb for centuries.

1. Which two medieval kings started schools for sons of nobles and freemen?
2. What were the peasants taught?
3. Who maintained the medieval schools?
4. What subjects were taught in the medieval schools?
5. Describe the medieval school.
6. Who was Thomas Aquinas?
7. Of what did the education of a medieval girl consist?

## MEDIEVAL CHURCH BUILDINGS

The best examples of medieval architecture are preserved in the churches of that time. This is partly due to the fact that, aside from castles, the churches were the best-built structures of the period. The wooden houses have long ago been destroyed by fire or decay or been removed in the modernization of towns. A great number of churches, on the other hand, still stand and show the skill and the talent of the builders. There are two types of architecture of that period, the earlier Romanesque and the later Gothic.

**Romanesque Architecture** The Romanesque, as the name implies, was like the Roman. It was patterned after the Roman basilica. Romanesque churches were cross-shaped with thick walls and few windows. The congregation stood or knelt in the nave for there were no chairs or benches for them. The side aisles were separated from the nave by large, round pil-

lars that gave additional support to the roof. Since the people could not read, the stories of the Christian religion were told in paintings on the walls or in statues. Romanesque architecture was used in Italy and France and was introduced into England from France in the eleventh century.

**Gothic Architecture** As builders became more skillful, the buildings were made much taller, lighter, and more graceful and elaborate. Thus there evolved a new type of architecture called the Gothic. It could be distinguished from the Romanesque by its thinner walls, larger windows, and pointed arches over doors and windows. The large windows were made of stained glass to soften the light that would otherwise have been too bright. Spires and statues of stone adorned the outside. The interiors were highly decorated with elaborate stone and wood carvings. It made no difference whether a statue was in a prominent place or in a dark corner, the artist took the same care to make it the best he could produce. Cathedrals were made to honor God, not to please man.

Gothic architecture originated in France, where nearly every great cathedral was started in the thirteenth century and where no two are alike. They were not planned in detail, with blueprints, as buildings are today; craftsmen used a great deal of individuality in their work. The buildings grew gradually over a long period of time. It often took two centuries to build a cathedral and some authorities say that no one of the great cathedrals is finished.

1. Describe a Romanesque building.
2. Describe a Gothic building.
3. Explain the terms nave, arches, statue, cathedral.

4. What country was the home of Gothic architecture? When?
5. How were cathedrals designed?

## DIVISION ARISES IN THE CHRISTIAN CHURCH

In the West the Church, under the popes' leadership, assumed much of the power, authority, and unifying influence that had belonged to the Roman Empire. The Church in the Eastern Roman Empire took less seriously the Pope's claim to a position of supremacy in the Christian Church. There were other differences between their doctrines, too. For example, they celebrated Christmas and Easter at different times. At last a quarrel over the use of images in the Church brought their differences to a climax. The Eastern Church forbade the use of images, while they were commonly used in the West. Finally the so-called *iconoclastic* (ī kōn ō klās'tik) controversy (from the Greek word "icon" meaning image) brought about a separation of the Eastern, or Orthodox, Church and the Western, or Roman Catholic, Church, in the middle of the eleventh century. They have been separate ever since.

The Eastern Church officials had always been under the control of the emperor. For this reason the Church exercised less influence upon the affairs of state than did the Church of the West, where the popes often dominated the rulers. The Eastern Empire grew weaker however as the Arabs and later the Turks conquered parts of its lands. At length the emperor feared that even his capital, Constantinople, might be taken over by the Asiatic Turks. Despite their differences in religion, he called upon the most powerful person of the West, the Pope, for aid. It was through the Crusades that the





Culver Service

German and French bishops and princes were present at Urban's call at Clermont. Note the French fleur-de-lis.

West came in contact with the civilization that had been preserved in the Eastern Empire.

## THE CHURCH SPONSORS THE CRUSADES

### The Call at Clermont

When Pope Urban II received the call for aid from the Emperor of the Eastern Empire, he gladly responded. He hoped that such help would give him an opportunity to reunite the Orthodox and Roman Catholic Churches. He also hoped that such a venture would turn the attention of the Western nobles from warring upon each other. There was another consideration, too. Since the earliest days of Christianity it had been the custom for many persons to make pilgrimages to places connected with the life of Jesus, especially Jerusalem. So long as the Arabs had held Jerusalem, they had not hindered the Christians from coming there to worship. The Seljuk Turks, however, treated them cruelly and Christians were no longer able to make pilgrimages to

the Holy Land. At Clermont, France, the Pope appealed to the people to go on a crusade to drive the pagan Turks out of the Holy Land. In response to his appeal, *Dieu le veut* "God wills it" became a slogan for a movement that lasted for two hundred years.

### Motives of Crusaders

The response to the Pope's appeal was surprising. Thousands of people of all classes sold their possessions or left them in the care of others and joined the throng that started a few months later for the Holy Land. Beggars and nobles alike went. Kings and nobles became leaders of groups, some going by land and some by sea. Their motives, too, varied. Many went to regain the Holy Land from the Turks, but others went to escape responsibilities, to get wealth and lands, others to atone for their sins, and others just for adventure. But knights and rulers forgot their quarrels and Western Europe was united in a common cause.

### The Crusaders

Crusaders could be recognized by the garb they wore, a gray cloak with an attached hood that could be pulled over the head for protection or thrown back. Each crusader wore a red cross, on his breast as he headed toward Jerusalem and on his back on his return trip home. From a broad belt around his waist hung a water bottle or gourd, and sometimes a bell.

Those who walked soon became footsore and weary. Those who went on the crowded ships were uncomfortable, too. Since the ship owners were eager to make as much as possible, each traveler was allotted a space on deck six feet by two for sleeping, but the aggressive no doubt elbowed their timid neighbors into even

smaller quarters. Some passengers brought along chickens to keep them supplied with fresh eggs, goats to give them milk, and horses to bear them on the journey after leaving the ship. The sanitary conditions were unspeakably bad and illness and great discomfort were the lot of many. The death rate during the Crusades from exhaustion, contagious diseases contracted on the filthy ships, or from battle with Moslems whom they had to fight to get to Jerusalem was very high.

Despite the risks, thousands of men continued to put on the crusaders' garb and head toward the Holy Land. They kept going in a fairly steady stream for more than a century and in decreased numbers for almost another century. Ships carrying these earnest pilgrims left the Mediterranean ports of Western Europe each year.

**The First Crusade** The First Crusade got under way in 1096. When the armies neared Constantinople, the Emperor of the Eastern Empire, who had expected troops to fight under his banner and not as independent armies, tried by treachery to interfere with them. After some fighting, an agreement was reached with the Emperor. The crusaders then crossed into Asia Minor, where they met with trouble from the Turks. Finally, after three years of marching and fighting, they reached Jerusalem. At first they expected the city wall to fall as they marched barefoot around it. When that miracle did not happen, they stormed the walls and took the city by force. Then they began a terrible massacre of the inhabitants. One of the leaders wrote to the Pope that his men "rode in the blood of the Saracens (Moslems) up to the knees of their horses." Most of the crusaders, having worshipped in the

Holy Land, returned home. By the middle of the twelfth century the Saracens began retaking the land, and finally, in 1187, Jerusalem itself was retaken.

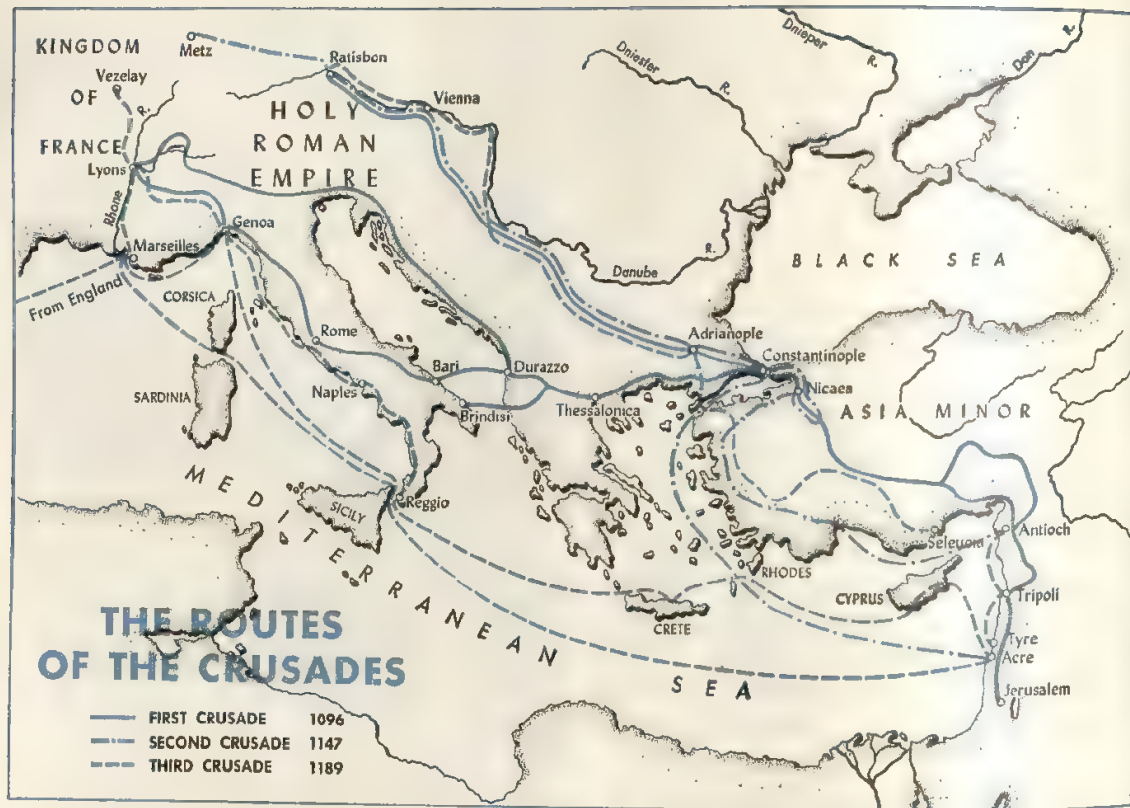
**Later Crusades** One of the most important Crusades was the Third. It was led by three of Europe's most powerful kings of the time, Richard the Lion-Hearted of England, Philip Augustus of France, and Frederick Barbarossa of Germany. These men feared and distrusted each other as much as they hated the Moslems. Frederick Barbarossa was drowned before he reached Palestine and the other two kings fell to quarreling. Finally Philip Augustus left for home and Richard fought on alone. Unable to retake Jerusalem, he made a truce with the Moslem leader, Saladin. The truce provided that the Turks should keep Jerusalem but that the Christians could come to worship at the Holy Sepulcher, the tomb of the Christ.

Although the Crusades continued, they did so with less force and with less popular

*The Crusades demonstrate what power the Church had over the people of medieval Western Europe.*

Bettmann Archive





support. Gradually the people of Western Europe turned to other interests and by 1291 they had lost all political power in the Holy Land.

## RESULTS OF THE CRUSADES

Even before the Crusades, life in Western Europe was undergoing a change. The very fact that the Crusades took place demonstrates that changes were in store for the people in any event, but the Crusades hastened them. The people who went to the East came back with a broader outlook than they otherwise would have had. On their return home, they created a demand for products that were common in the East, such as spices, perfumes, muslins, silks, oriental rugs, and tapestries. In order

to get these, trade increased between the East and the West. From the East the Crusaders learned new ways of fighting, too, and new types of armaments, such as the battering ram and catapult, were brought back. Because of the effectiveness of the new weapons, nobles had to build stronger castles than those of wood. So stone castles and round towers came into existence. From the Eastern Empire the Crusaders learned about the geographic theories that the ancient Greeks had held. But most of all they acquired a broader outlook and a better understanding of other people. They became more interested in travel, more alert, and more inquisitive. All of these effects might have come gradually without the Crusades, but the Crusades surely hastened them.



1. Tell how the Orthodox Church became separated from the Roman Catholic Church.
2. Which of these churches had the more power in government? Why?
3. How did the Crusades get started? When? How long did they last?
4. What were the chief reasons why people went on Crusades?
5. Identify Urban II, Richard the Lion-Hearted, Philip Augustus, Frederick Barbarossa, and Saladin.
6. Tell the story of the First Crusade. The Third Crusade.
7. List the important results of the Crusades.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In what sense did the medieval Church rather than Charlemagne's Empire replace the Roman Empire?

2. The Rule of St. Benedict provided that monks should do manual labor and study. What was the importance of these provisions to the world?

3. In what sense were the monks missionaries of culture as well as of religion?

4. Why did Gregory the Great have the most respected position in Rome even before he assumed the rule of the city?

5. In what ways is your text superior to the manuscripts of the Middle Ages?

6. In the Middle Ages a bright man could acquire nearly all of the knowledge of his day. Is that true today?

7. If you could suddenly be transplanted into a medieval school what would you miss most that you have in your school today?

8. In what way are the medieval cathedrals an expression of the spirit of the Middle Ages?

9. Did the break between the Eastern Orthodox Church and the Roman Catholic Church have any bearing on the differences in the cul-

tures of Eastern and Western Europe today?

10. Why did the Eastern Emperor appeal to the Pope for aid rather than to a king?

11. What movements, not fought with bows and arrows nor with guns and airplanes, are rightly spoken of as crusades?

## USING TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• A.B. degree • Archbishop of Canterbury  
• Benedictine rule • cathedral • chronicle  
• *Dieu le veut* • flying buttress • friars • Gothic architecture • hermit • heretic • heresy • Holy Land • Holy Sepulcher • iconoclastic controversy • illuminated manuscripts • M.A. degree • monastery • monks • papacy • Ph.D. degree • Romanesque architecture • rule of chastity, poverty, and obedience • seven liberal arts •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 450 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Asia Minor • Avignon • Bologna • Cambridge • Canterbury • Chartres • Chester • Clermont • Cologne • Eli • Hippo • Holy Land • Jerusalem • Latin Kingdoms • Oxford • Paris • Rheims • Winchester • York •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Thomas Aquinas • St. Augustine • Frederick Barbarossa • St. Boniface • Gregory I • Innocent III • John • Leo I • Philip Augustus • Richard the Lion-Hearted • Saladin • St. Augustine of Canterbury • St. Augustine of Hippo • St. Benedict • St. Patrick • Urban II •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. One member of the class may find out what the usual requirements are today for a B.A. degree, an M.A. degree, and a Ph.D.

2. In Vol. I of Robinson's *Readings in European History* read Pope Urban's speech at Clermont, pp. 312-316. Imagine that you were present when it was delivered and write a description of the scene giving the reactions of different types of people.

3. Read an account of the Children's Crusade in a book on the Crusades or in an encyclopedia and report to the class.

4. If there is a modern Gothic or Romanesque church in your neighborhood, let some member of the class ask the clergyman in charge to explain its structure to the class.

5. Arrange for an informal debate on one of the following topics:

RESOLVED: That the Crusades were useless.

RESOLVED: That the monks aided in the world's culture.

RESOLVED: That the Western monks were more beneficial to the world than the hermits of the East.

RESOLVED: That the workmen who made the medieval cathedrals had more appreciation of art than modern workmen have.

### III. At the Blackboard

Two pupils can work together to list on the blackboard for the class the services in the Middle Ages by the Church. In a parallel column tell what agencies perform those services today in the United States.

### IV. For the Bulletin Board

1. a. Make a poster urging people to join the First, Third, or Children's Crusade.

b. Make a poster to advertise one of the medieval universities.

c. Draw a picture of a monk, nun, or crusader.

2. From the Metropolitan Museum in New York City you can buy postcard pictures of pages of illuminated manuscripts. Get some of these to illustrate a theme on this subject or for the bulletin board.

### V. History Related to Art

1. Make a picture collection of Romanesque and Gothic cathedrals. Put them into a booklet and beside each picture tell the type of architecture, the location of the cathedral, and point out some of its features, such as spires, arches, statues, etc. For a frontispiece use an outline map of Europe showing where each cathedral illustrated is located.

2. Invite the teacher or someone who has traveled in Europe to speak to the class and show you pictures of one or more of the medieval cathedrals.

3. If you have a city museum which has examples of medieval sculpture, stained glass, or woodcarving, make arrangements for the curator to explain them to the class.

4. Using transparent paper, make a small model of a stained glass window. Use dark gray paper for the tracery and the casing. Place it in a window for the proper effect. Your art teacher can give you helpful suggestions, or you may refer to books.

### VI. Class Committee Work

1. Appoint a committee of three or four pupils to make a table model of a monastery. The buildings can be made of heavy paper. Cut sponges, dyed green, into the shapes of trees and glue them on match sticks. Label the fields, gardens, buildings, etc.

2. Appoint a committee of two or three to make a large map of Europe for the bulletin board. On it place labels of one color to show the location of the outstanding Romanesque buildings. Use labels of another color to show the locations of important Gothic buildings.

### VII. Picture Study

In the picture on page 178 identify the pages, bishops, Pope, and noble warriors. Note the fleur-de-lis on the French costumes.



## Feudalism and Town Life Bring Great Changes

Following the breakup of Charlemagne's empire there was little law and order in Western Europe. Kings kept their positions in name but they had little authority. The government broke up into small units, each under a local lord who held land and had power to maintain order. Weaker men who had no means of protection placed themselves at the service of the stronger men and received land in return for their military services.

### FEUDALISM DIVIDES THE LAND

Despite his loss of real power, the king's position remained. He was regarded as the holder of all the land in the country. The local lords received their land from him and thus became his *vassals* and he their *lord*. The vassal might, in turn, grant parts of the land he had received to other men who needed his protection. Thus they became his vassals, and he their lord. The land so granted was known as a *fief* (fēf), or *feud*, and the system was known as feudalism. Under such a system it was the local lord and not the king to whom the people looked for protection and to whom they owed their loyalty.

Feudalism had its origin in France and there it reached its height. It spread to other countries of Western Europe, developing differently in each of them. However, there were certain aspects of feudalism that were found everywhere.

### Ceremony of Becoming a Vassal

The ceremony of becoming a vassal was usually an impressive one. The man who was to become the vassal came to the castle of the lord, where other men were assembled for the occasion. The lord sat in the great hall of his castle and the man knelt before him, placed his hands in the hands of the lord and declared himself the "lord's man" for a certain fief. This act was called *homage*. Then the lord raised the man to his feet and gave him the kiss of peace, whereupon the vassal, with his hand on the Bible or on a sacred relic, took an oath of *fealty*, or *fidelity*, to the lord. Finally, the lord *invested* the man with the fief. That is, he gave him the land. In the early Middle Ages, when most men could not write, this part of the ceremony consisted not in giving the man a piece of paper stating the ownership of the fief, but a twig, a clod of earth, a glove, a sword, or some other object that



represented the land. Later, when more people could write, contracts were drawn up and signed. Thus through *homage*, *fealty*, and *investiture* the man became the vassal of the lord.

**Duties of a Vassal** The duties of a vassal were well defined, but they varied from place to place. The following three were almost universal, however: (1) The vassal must fight for his lord a certain number of days a year, usually forty, if he was asked to do so. (2) He must attend the court of the lord if requested to do so. (3) He must pay three *aids* if the occasion arose. An aid was a sum of money paid when the lord's eldest son was knighted, when his eldest daughter was married, or if the lord was held for ransom. On his part, the lord had to protect the person and property of the vassal.

**Feudalism and the Power of the King** The fief was granted for the life-

time of the vassal, and it became the custom to pass it on from the father to the eldest son. Each generation had to go through the ceremony of becoming a vassal, however, so that there was no ownership or transfer of land as we know it today. Nevertheless, the certainty of getting and keeping a fief for life made the "great" vassals feel independent of the king. The "lesser" vassals who paid homage to the great vassals felt little loyalty to the king either. Thus many of the nobles under the feudal system wielded more power than the king.

**Truce of God** There was continuous warfare among the lesser nobles, while the vassals of the king often fought each other and sometimes their king. This warfare was carried on back and forth across the land used by the peasants, with no regard for the property and the crops which were being destroyed. The Church, seeing the evils of these wars to the peasants as well as to the nobles, sought to prevent

*Feudalism differed in details from country to country, but its basic features were the same everywhere. Feudalism was a type of government, a class system, and a system of land-holding by powerful men.*



so much fighting. Accordingly, a Truce of God was issued forbidding fighting on all holy days, during Lent, and on Thursday, Friday, Saturday, and Sunday of each week. Peasants, merchants, and women were not to be molested during warfare. The Church found it difficult, however, to enforce the truce.

**Castles** The great nobles lived in castles on their fiefs. The chief purpose of the castle was not comfort, but protection. Strong walls surrounded the enclosure and at the corners of the walls were watch-towers. Around the wall was a moat filled with soft mud and water so that an enemy would find it difficult to get across to put up ladders and scale the wall. A drawbridge at the gateway could be lowered and raised as need be to let people cross or to keep out the enemy. An extra grating, called a *portcullis* (pōrt kül'is), protected the gateway. Inside the walls was a court. The strongest and safest place in the castle was the *keep*, or *donjon* (dūn'jūn). This was the hall where most of the activities of the family took place. Here they ate and had their entertainments, and in case an outer wall fell in an attack, all the people of the castle went to the keep for protection.

Castles sound romantic and interesting, but in reality they were damp, cold, and dark. The only heat came from fireplaces which, though large, could not heat the halls. Ill-fitting windows and doors created drafts. There was very little light in the castle because the only windows were high, narrow slits in the wall through which it would be difficult for an enemy outside to shoot an arrow. The floors were covered with rushes or reeds and flowers. When meals were to be served, boards were placed upon trestles to serve as tables. The



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*The man with the whip frightens the ducks into the air so the falcons can fly after them. A painting by Holbein.*

refuse from the tables was thrown on the floor for the dogs. It is no wonder that nobles liked to have several castles. They could go from one to another when the one in which they had been living needed an airing and some fresh reeds.

Chess was a favorite game among the members of the castle household, and dice, checkers, and card games were played, too. In England blindman's buff was a Christmas game among adults as well as children. Indoor and outdoor tennis and fox hunting were popular pastimes. But despite these numerous forms of entertainment, there were many days of idleness and boredom for the noblemen and their ladies in the Middle Ages.

1. Why did feudalism come into existence?
2. How did a man become a vassal?
3. What were the duties of a vassal? A lord?
4. Why was the Truce of God issued and for what did it provide?
5. Describe a medieval castle.
6. List the games and other forms of entertainment common in the Middle Ages.

**Knighthood** The earliest knights were probably the young German warriors who brought their armor with them and were presented to the whole tribe. A simple ceremony made a knight a



full member of the tribe. These early knights were fierce warriors, good at swinging the battle axe and the sword.

Later in the Middle Ages there grew up a standard of conduct known as *chivalry* from the French word meaning "horseman." The ideals of chivalry were Christian and so had a humanizing influence upon the otherwise brutal society in which might made right. The knights were pledged to generosity, courtesy, protection of the weak, and to honorable living and fearlessness in fighting for the right. They did not always live up to their obligations, but chivalry set an ideal to strive for.

There were no officers in this "order" of knighthood; there was no visible organization; no one was born a knight. It was such an honor to become one, nevertheless, that even kings were eager to be knighted. A man could receive knighthood only from another knight, and he was knighted only after performing a deed of bravery that deserved such distinction.



**Education for Knighthood** Noble boys in the Middle Ages usually were educated to receive the honor. When a boy was about seven he was sent to the castle of a nobleman, where he became a

page. As a page he waited upon the ladies of the castle, learning, among other things, to carve and serve at the table, but above all to be courteous and thoughtful of others. He was taught the stories of the saints who had fought dragons, demons, and evil men in order to promote Christianity. The clergy usually taught the page to read and write. He learned to hunt, to dance, and to play a musical instrument.

By the time the page was fourteen or fifteen this preliminary stage of his education was over and he became a squire. As such he was trained to ride horseback, use armor, and fight. His chief duty was to keep his lord's armor shining brightly. He accompanied the lord if he went into battle or took part in a tournament. If the lord was wounded, the squire was expected to get him off the field to safety.

**Dubbing a Knight** The ceremony for making a squire a knight was serious and impressive. The young man took his armor into the church, where he knelt in prayer all night. The next morning, after bathing and dressing, he attended a church service. Upon coming from the church he was dressed in his armor and then, kneeling solemnly before the lord, was dubbed a knight. The older knight tapped him on the shoulder three times with the flat side of the sword saying, "In the name of God, St. Michael, and St. George, I dub thee knight; be gallant, be courteous, be loyal."

**Manor** The great mass of the people of the Middle Ages were not nobles. Four fifths of the population kept the feudal system going by their labors, for nobles did not work except to do mili-



tary service. This large proportion of the population was made up chiefly of peasants. Each noble family lived on a manor. The manor was a large tract of land, and a lord often had several of them. On a manor were the castle, or manor-house, in which the lord lived, the village where the serfs lived, the church, fields, orchards, pastures, and gardens. Each manor had its own court, presided over by the lord. Because the manor was usually isolated, it had to be self-sufficient.

**Peasants** The peasants on the manor were divided into two groups, the freemen and the serfs. Serfs were bound to the land on which they lived. They could not leave the manor without the lord's consent, nor marry without his approval. A serf could be freed by running away and staying away a year and a day; but there were few places for him to go. Neighboring manors were closed to him, and in the towns he could have found few ways of making a living. Occasionally a lord granted freedom to a serf for some extraordinary service. Then, as a freeman, he worked for wages and was at liberty to find a new master if he could.

**Peasant Village** The little village on the manor in which the serfs lived consisted of one-room huts without windows. The walls were often of stone picked up in the neighborhood, and the roof was thatched. Serfs usually built their fires on the earthen floor and let the smoke escape through the many cracks in the walls. In bad weather, the chickens and pigs often sought shelter inside the hut. The furnishings of the house were few and crude. The family slept on some straw in one corner or in a loft.

**Life of the Peasant** The families occupying these homes lived drab lives. Many children were born, but since there was little sanitation and not much knowledge of medicine, the death rate was very high. The peasants had one garment that hung from the shoulders to the knees, belted at the waist with a rope. Their food was as scanty as their clothing. The common diet was a coarse, dark bread of barley, made without yeast; and beans, onions, and cabbage. Meat was a rarity although the peasants were permitted to catch fish in the stream on the manor. If there was any salt in the manor, it had to be used sparingly, and the only sweetening medieval people had was honey. When a drought occurred or when crops were ruined by warfare or by a hunting party, the peasants suffered horribly. Many of them died of starvation.



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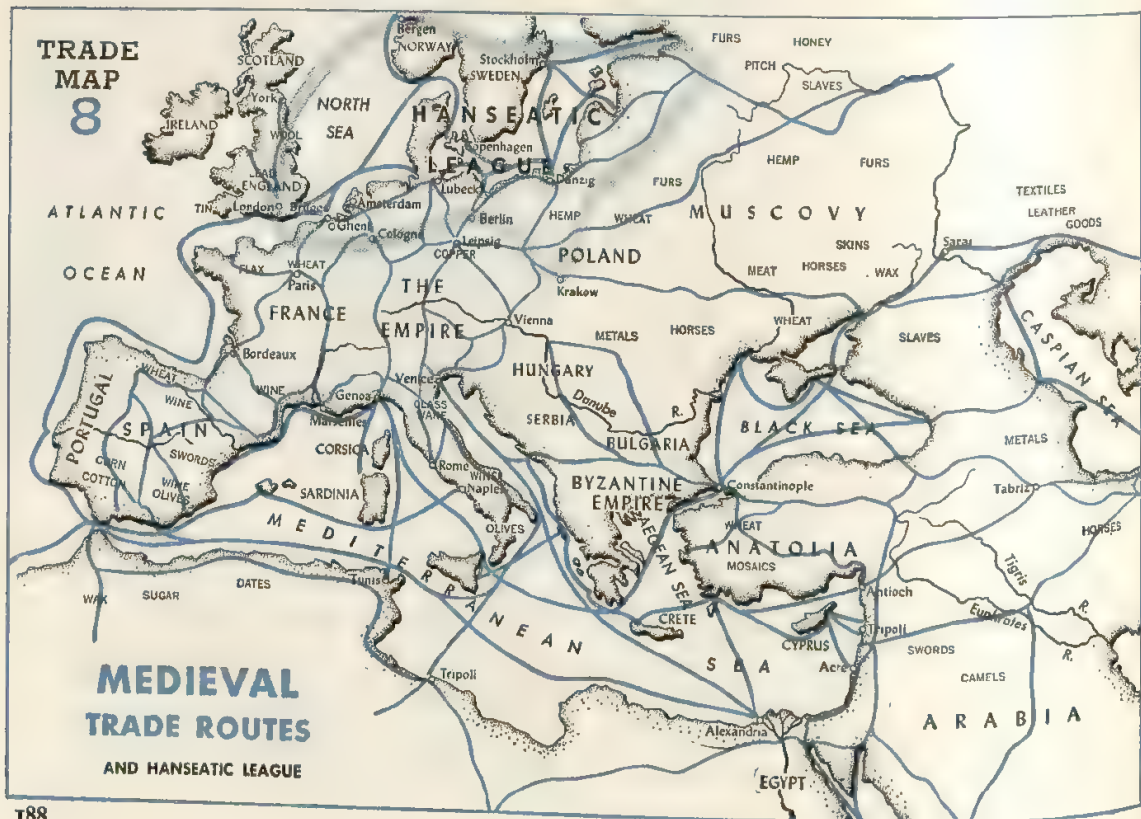
*The planter scatters the seed by hand. His helper tries to shoot the blackbirds before they eat up the seeds.*

**Work of the Serfs** The fields on which the serfs grew the crops were often far from the village. The tillable land was divided into three fields, two of which were planted each year. The third was allowed to lie idle, in the belief that the fertility of the idle field would be renewed.

Each serf was given a few strips of land, each strip in a different part of the two fields so that no single serf would get all of the good land. A portion of the produce raised by the serf on his strips had to be given to the lord, and on certain days when the serf worked only for the lord he attended to the lord's sheep, pigs, and geese and did anything else that was required on the land. Such was the dismal and very harsh life of the vast majority of the people.

**Changes in the Condition of the Serfs** The peasants as a whole were humble before their masters and accepted this sharp class distinction as a matter of course. This, however, did not continue to be true of all of them. As money became more common in the Late Middle Ages,

farm workers demanded that they be paid for their work in money wages. Then, in 1348-1349, a plague known as the Black Death spread throughout Europe. It struck England with particular violence. When the fury of it had passed, between a third and a half of the population of Western Europe was dead. This made it difficult to get workers, and so wages of freemen were raised and serfs were in a better position to demand money for their work. When they did not get their demands, revolts broke out in many parts of Western Europe. The most serious revolt, known as the Peasants' Revolt, occurred in England in 1381. Led by agitators who wandered about the country, the peasants gathered together and marched on London to demand their rights of the king.



The revolt was put down by the nobles and the king. The English rulers were thoroughly frightened, however, by the bloodshed and began easing the lot of the serfs. Within a century there were no serfs left in England, but that was not true in other countries, where serfdom lasted for several centuries.

1. For what ideals were knights pledged to work?
2. Who could become a knight?
3. What training was given to boys of noble birth?
4. Describe the process by which a man usually became a knight.
5. What remnants of chivalry are there in the world today?
6. Describe a medieval manor.
7. What restrictions were placed upon a serf? How could he become free?
8. Describe a typical peasant home and village.
9. What was the life and work of a serf like?
10. What was the effect of the Peasants' Revolt in England?

## THE REVIVAL OF TOWN LIFE

**Origin of Towns** Despite the invasions, destructive fires, and warfare during the decline and fall of the Roman Empire, some towns survived. They were usually the ones situated where they had the natural protection of rivers, the sea, or swamps. Many of these towns were on the old Roman roads that had borne the commerce of an earlier day. Such towns as Florence, Naples, Paris, Marseilles, Tours, London, and Winchester had been centers of commerce in Roman days. Although they were reduced in population during the years, they managed to survive.

Beginning in the eleventh century, towns grew in size and importance. The Crusades hastened their development as centers of trade. Men with packs of Oriental goods came to the towns to sell their wares, and boats entered the harbors of London and other sea and river ports laden with their precious cargoes from the East. Other people came to the towns for the protection they gave in time of warfare. Bern in Switzerland, Warwick in England, Aix-la-Chapelle in France, and Frankfort in Germany all developed around strong castles. Other cities, like Peterborough in England, grew up around monasteries. People believed the saying, "It is good to live under the shadow of the cross," and so monasteries attracted them. Most towns, however, grew with trade.

**Medieval Towns** Because protection was so essential in those times of constant warfare, there were walls around all cities. The walls were of stone with towers at intervals where armored guards were stationed in time of trouble. Outside the wall there was usually a moat for further protection, and just inside the wall was a road so that defenders could get from one tower to another easily. There was usually a gate in the wall on each side of the city, which was closed at night to keep out wild animals and bands of robbers. Roads connected the gates so that carts bringing produce could pass through the town. These main streets were usually fifteen or eighteen feet wide, but other streets were mere alleys. All streets were unpaved and in rainy weather the mud was deep. There were no sewers and all refuse was thrown into the street. Such overcrowding and lack of sanitation made fires and plagues common.



**Houses** The houses were made of timber and had thatched roofs, making fires a constant danger. They were three or four stories high and were built with overhanging second stories in order to economize on space, for as the population grew it could not safely spread beyond the city wall. Houses were close together and built in every possible place, even on the walls and bridges of some towns like London and Paris. Every city had many churches, and important towns had cathedrals. Some cities had town halls where public business was carried on. These buildings were often very beautiful and imposing structures, but the first thing one saw when approaching the city was the spires of the churches and the tower of the castle.

### **Political Importance of Towns**

By the thirteenth century towns had become important politically. In both France and England townsmen were permitted to sit in parliaments. They had money, and kings knew that they would be more willing to pay taxes if they took part in the discussion of the nation's business. The Italian cities were able to win a large degree of independence from the successors of Charlemagne and they set up republics which were dominated by certain noble families. The French and English towns did not become so independent, but some of them won charters from the king or nobles. Richard the Lion-Hearted, for instance, granted a charter of self-rule to London in return for money with which to equip his vessels for the Third Crusade. Sometimes townsmen banded together and fought for their charters, which usually granted them freedom from the payment of feudal dues and the right to select some of their own officials.

1. When and why did towns begin to grow in size?
2. Describe a typical medieval town.
3. Describe a house built in medieval towns.
4. How did towns gain a measure of self-government?

### **THERE WERE MANY HINDRANCES TO MEDIEVAL TRADE**

#### **Lack of Trade in Early Middle Ages**

There had been very little trade during the Early Middle Ages in Europe. There were several reasons for this. On land, poor roads were a hindrance. The old Roman roads had not been kept in repair and no new ones were built. Then, too, the people of the manors were nearly self-supporting and felt little need for additional products. Every merchant who used a road or a stream or a bridge on a manor had to pay the lord part of his produce as a toll. The lack of coins was a hindrance, too, for barter does not encourage trade. The medieval Church forbade the paying of interest on loans, so that it was very difficult to borrow any money.

**Renewal of Trade** Despite these handicaps, in the twelfth century commerce and trade increased. Since many of the products came from the East, trade was centered around the Mediterranean. Cargoes were sent by ship from the eastern end of the Mediterranean Sea to Venice and Genoa. These two cities led the world in trade and vied with each other for business.

**The Hanseatic League** A group of about seventy German cities formed an organization known as the Hanseatic League to protect their shipping from the pirates on the North and Baltic Seas.

Many Norsemen of that time made their living by preying on the vessels carrying merchandise from city to city. The ships of the Hanseatic League sailed in convoys, and the protection thus offered made shipping much safer in the northern waters.

The League developed into a strong organization that was able to make even kings bow to its wishes. The merchants of the Hansa towns grew rich and powerful. They brought to their cities wealth and culture from distant lands.

**Fairs** Medieval fairs were gala events. Local fairs were usually held in connection with a religious holiday and lasted for a week or two. The people from neighboring towns who came to the religious services lingered to see the sights, hear the news, and perhaps to buy some goods. Booths were set up in the streets or in an open space near the church or cathedral, and all other trading in the neighborhood was prohibited during the fair. Wandering merchants came with their packs to sell goods that were not produced locally.

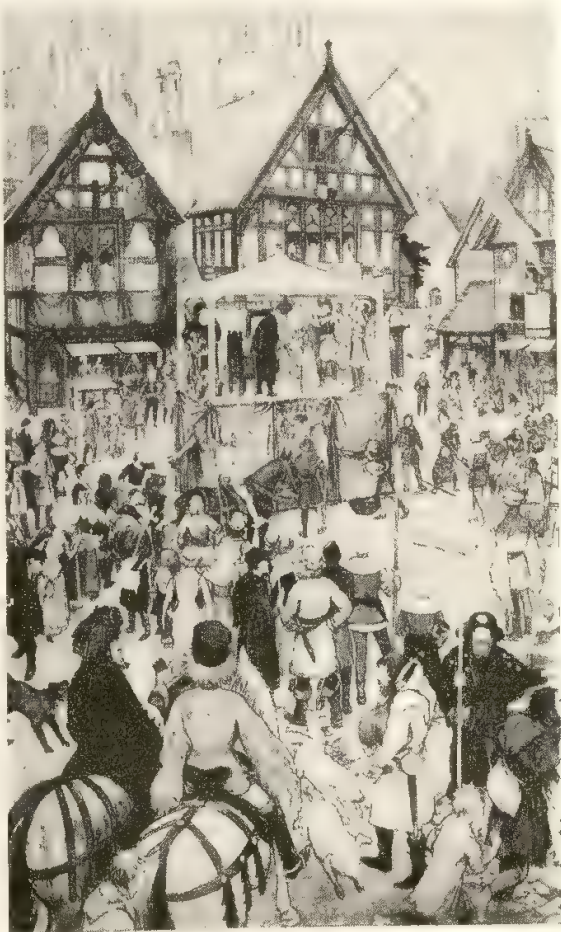
After the twelfth century some of the fairs came to be exchanges for goods on a large scale. One of the most noted of the "great" fairs was held at Champagne in France. Here for the first time peasants from the surrounding countryside saw men from far-off Constantinople, Venice, or Genoa in strange dress, selling rugs, shawls, spices, and perfumes, and they heard of events taking place miles away from the manor. Besides the merchants and customers, there were minstrels, clowns, acrobats, and jugglers circulating about to entertain the people for pennies thrown their way.

Both local fairs and the great fairs had an important effect upon Medieval Europe.

They provided almost the only opportunity to buy goods not made in the neighborhood. More important, however, was the knowledge the people gained of affairs outside their own narrow lives on the manor or in the town.

1. Why was there almost no trade in the Early Middle Ages?
2. Why and when did trade begin to grow?
3. Name five Hansa towns shown on the map.
4. Why was the Hanseatic League established?
5. Describe a medieval fair.
6. Why were fairs of importance to the people of the Middle Ages?

*Notice the two levels of this stage set up at a fair. Hanging over the houses at the back are guild signs.*



## THE GUILDS DOMINATE TOWN LIFE AND INDUSTRY

**Types of Guilds** As towns began to grow and commerce developed following the Crusades, organizations known as guilds grew up in the towns. There were two types of guilds, the merchant guilds, whose members carried on the trade between towns, and the craft guilds, whose members made and sold products in their own towns. Each craft in the town had its own guild. There were candlemakers, silversmiths, weavers, and many others.

**Learning a Craft** Craftsmen thought it wise to have no one but men of proved ability as members of the guilds. For this reason they established a system of training. The rules for the training were made by the guild members. Parents apprenticed their young boys to master workmen. The boys received their food, lodging, and instruction in a craft in return for their work. The length of time the boy was an apprentice varied from three to seven years, according to the craft he was learning. At the end of that time he became a journeyman, still working for the master but receiving daily wages. After he had been a journeyman for a certain time, he made his "master piece" to show that he was able to turn out alone work that was up to a high standard and so to become a master.

**Guild Regulations** The purpose of the craft guild was to protect the members and to prevent competition from other craftsmen. In order to do this, the guild set up rules to regulate the production and sale of the goods they made. Rules of the guild also regulated the hours of work. They forbade work at night. The amount of goods a master could produce and the



*It should not be difficult for you to identify these guild signs.*

materials used in making the product were restricted. These rules kept up the quality of the product and regulated the amount so there would not be a surplus and a slump in the price. Rules were made to limit the number of apprentices so that unemployment would not result from too many being trained in one craft, and no one could engage in a craft unless he was a member of the craft guild. On the other hand, the rules limiting the materials to be used prevented experimentation. New materials and styles were not developed and sales were therefore fewer than they might have been with new goods and styles.

Late in the Middle Ages some of the more prosperous makers of cloth began hiring craftsmen to work for them. They brought the workers together in one building to make their goods. This factory system was on a small scale, but examples of it were to be found in many towns.

**The New Middle Class** During the Early Middle Ages there were only three classes of society, namely: the clergy, the nobles, and the peasants, and there was a sharp distinction between them. As towns grew in importance, a new middle, or burgher, class appeared. The *middle class* was made up of well-to-do merchants and master craftsmen. They lived in towns, in comfortable and well-furnished houses. Gradually they demanded local charters of self-government for their cities. Then the



old manorial law of the lords was replaced by laws made by the cities.

The new middle class usually monopolized the positions on the town councils and the poor citizens had little voice in the government. With the decline of serfdom and the growth of towns, this new class became powerful. It was destined to become the backbone of the new national states that were developing in Europe. *The rise of a new middle class of society was perhaps the most important development in the Late Middle Ages.*

1. What were the two types of medieval guilds?
2. Name some of the craft guilds that could have been found in medieval cities.
3. What was the purpose of the guild?
4. Describe the steps by which a person could become a guild member.
5. What were some of the rules laid down by the guilds for their members?
6. State some of the advantages of these rules.
7. Why was the new middle class important?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did the framers of our Constitution include in that document the provision that there could be no titles of nobility used by the citizens of the United States?

2. Although there was constant warfare in the Middle Ages, there were not many casualties and the cost was slight as compared to modern warfare. Why was this true?

3. What does the word *chivalrous* mean?

4. Why are farmers not looked upon today as a lower class as the medieval farmers were?

5. Why do laborers today have a higher standard of living than a count or duke in the Middle Ages?

6. What were the chief worries of the workmen of the medieval towns?

7. Why were there such frequent epidemics of disease in medieval towns?

8. Can you think of any hindrances to trade today between nations?

9. In what ways do labor unions resemble medieval guilds? In what ways are they very different?

10. In what ways were medieval guilds a hindrance to progress?

11. Do fairs of today serve purposes as useful as those of the medieval fairs?

12. The position of the new burgher class was based upon wealth rather than birth. Which would be more democratic? Why?

13. Why was the rise of the new middle class of such importance in Europe?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• apprentice • Black Death • chivalry • donjon • drawbridge • dubbing a knight • fairs • fealty • feud • feudal aids • feudalism • fidelity • fief • guild • Hanseatic League • homage • investiture • journeyman • keep • knighthood • lord • manor • master workman • minstrel • moat • page • peasant • portcullis • serf • squire • tournament • Truce of God • vassal •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1381 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Aix-la-Chapelle • Constantinople • Flanders • Florence • Frankfort • Genoa • Leipzig • London • Marseilles • Naples • Paris • Peterborough • Tours • Venice • Winchester •

On a map show also the chief cities of the Hanseatic League:

• Lübeck • Bremen • Hamburg • Cologne • Utrecht • Wisby •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. With a classmate select one of the following for preparation and presentation to the class after it has been approved by your teacher.

a. Write a dialogue between two serfs in which they bring out their approval or disapproval of the conditions under which they live. Power's *Medieval People* will help you.

b. Write a dialogue between two apprentices in which they tell each other how they like their work, their master, their town, and friends.

2. Imagine that you lived in a great castle in the Middle Ages. Describe to the class the scene in the great hall on the occasion of a visit from a troubadour. Tappan's *When Knights Were Bold* or Mill's *The Middle Ages* are sources.

3. Write a code of chivalry that the boys of your school might practice today.

4. Divide the class into groups, each group to discuss informally one of the following topics:

Medieval serfs were better off than Roman slaves.

Life was pleasant for the lord of a manor.

Why I would (or would not) like to spend a year in a medieval castle.

The robber barons of the Norse countries were as evil as modern gangsters.

The lot of the serf was hard.

5. Pretend that you are a merchant of the Middle Ages bringing a pack of precious spices to a fair in France, Germany, or England. Prepare for the class a report of the experiences you had on the way to the fair or what you saw at the fair. Refer to Jusserand's *English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages* or some other book.

6. During the Middle Ages most men had only first, or Christian, names. Family, or surnames came into being in the Late Middle Ages or later. Many surnames came from the occupations the men engaged in. John the baker became John Baker. Make a list of modern surnames that come from medieval occupations.

## III. Dramatization

Write a dramatization of the making of a vassal or a knight. Some members of the class might take part in your drama for presentation to the rest of the class.

## IV. A Costume Party

Plan a class costume party and have the members of the class dress like people of the Middle Ages. You might have one minstrel, two clowns, two peasants, and the rest lords and ladies. Have the games and other entertainment like those that would have been enjoyed in a medieval castle. Davis' *Life on a Medieval Barony* will be of help. Committees can be appointed for costumes, food, games, music, and guests.

## V. History Related to Science and the Arts

1. If you are interested in medicine, find out what diseases were fatal in the Middle Ages and what diseases are likely to be fatal today. Write your lists in parallel columns on the blackboard.

2. Working in groups, make a model of one of the following and explain it to the class:

a. a medieval town showing the homes, town hall, churches, market place, and wall.

b. a castle showing the chief rooms, wall, tower, drawbridge, etc.

c. a manor showing the house of the lord, village houses, pond, fields, forests, mill, gal-lows, etc.

## VI. For the Bulletin Board

Collect pictures of castles for the bulletin board. Label each, giving name and location. (Is your bulletin board committee system still working?)

## VII. Picture Study

Discuss the details in the picture on page 191.



## Western Nations Come into the World Picture

If you had lived in any part of Western Europe in the year 1000 you would not have spoken of yourself as an Englishman or a Frenchman or a Spaniard, but as a Londoner or a Parisian or a Cordovan. Or you might have said that you came from Yorkshire or Brittany or Saxony. The king of a country had so little control over the great nobles and their lands that the people had no feeling of belonging to a nation.

With the improved means of communication and the better weapons that came in the Late Middle Ages, kings gained more power. The Crusades contributed to their power, also. Many lords who went to the Holy Land did not return. Others returned to find that the king had by one means or another taken into his own hands the lands that the lord had left behind. One of the important historical movements in the Late Middle Ages was the great increase in the power of kings and the rise of nations.

### ENGLAND, THE FIRST STATE TO ATTAIN NATIONAL UNITY

Before we can understand how unity in England came about, we must go back into the early history of the country to see what

had been taking place over the centuries. The most conspicuous thing was a series of conquests of the island that brought several different peoples into the country, all of whom left their mark upon it.

Little is known of the original inhabitants of Britain. As early as 1500 B.C. the Phoenicians came to the shores of Cornwall on the south of the island to get tin. About 1000 B.C. the Celts (seltz) from northern Europe invaded and conquered the island. They intermarried with the natives and lived there for nearly a thousand years before Britain was dis-

*Roman culture in Britain was destroyed by the barbaric invaders, who kept even their own language.*

Bettmann Archive







Culver Service

*This is a small section from a very old piece of embroidery that illustrates the conquests of William I.*

covered by the Romans. In 55 B.C. Caesar crossed the English Channel to Britain, but he retreated before the firm stand of the Celtic warriors. The next year, better prepared, he went up the Thames to the little village on the site of the present London. After defeating the Celts, he exacted tribute from them, but then withdrew. The people of the island were left in peace for a hundred years until Rome conquered and ruled England from the middle of the first century to 410 A.D.

During the barbaric invasions of the Roman Empire the Roman troops were withdrawn from Britain to protect their holdings on the continent. Then the Germanic Angles, Saxons, and Jutes came across the North Sea and overran the part of the island that we call England. They were a barbarous people who had no need for the Latin culture they found there. They set up small kingdoms, each under its own ruler and with its own laws.

Then came the daring seamen, the Danes, in the late eighth and early ninth centuries. The Anglo-Saxons found a capable leader in the king of one of the small kingdoms, Alfred the Great (871-901). He succeeded in driving the Danes out of the southern and western parts of the land. By paying them tribute he was able to keep them out. After the death of Alfred, the land again fell upon bad times. The Danes pushed southward under the leadership of Canute (kæn ʊt')

(1016-1035). Canute was the king of Denmark who had conquered all of Scandinavia and ruled a large empire. He was able to keep England as part of his realm during his lifetime. Then the throne went back to the Anglo-Saxons, who proved to be weak.

William, the Duke of Normandy, decided to take advantage of the country's weakness. He got the approval of the Pope and then crossed to southern England and defeated the Saxon king, Harold, at Hastings in 1066. Harold was killed in the battle and some of the nobles elected William their king. William had to make a number of expeditions northward during the next twenty years to conquer the whole of the country. William gave the best jobs to his Norman followers who came to England with him. Lands were also taken from Saxon nobles and given to William's followers, and so the Normans became the masters of England.

The Norman conquest had a tremendous influence upon English history. For one thing, William strengthened feudalism in the country. But he did not intend that feudal lords should gain power at his expense, so he made all the landholders in England come to the plain near Salisbury and take an oath of allegiance to him. Here they promised to be loyal to him before all others. This modified form of feudalism gave the king more power and the government was centralized. Nobles could not defy William as they did the kings of France.

There were other effects of the Norman Conquest, too. Normans built Romanesque buildings, which the English call Norman architecture. New crafts, especially the weaving of fine woolen cloth, became important in England. For a time two languages, Anglo-Saxon and Norman-French, existed side by side in the country. Grad-

ually words from the Norman-French, which was based upon Latin, crept into the Anglo-Saxon. The fusion of the two formed the language that we call English. In it are not only the Anglo-Saxon words like "mild," "sheep," and "bloom," but corresponding words of Latin origin like "gentle," "mutton," and "flower." At first the Anglo-Saxons were reduced to serfdom, but eventually the races intermarried. The blood of all the invaders has been fused in the English people.

#### IMPORTANT STEPS WERE TAKEN IN ENGLISH GOVERNMENT

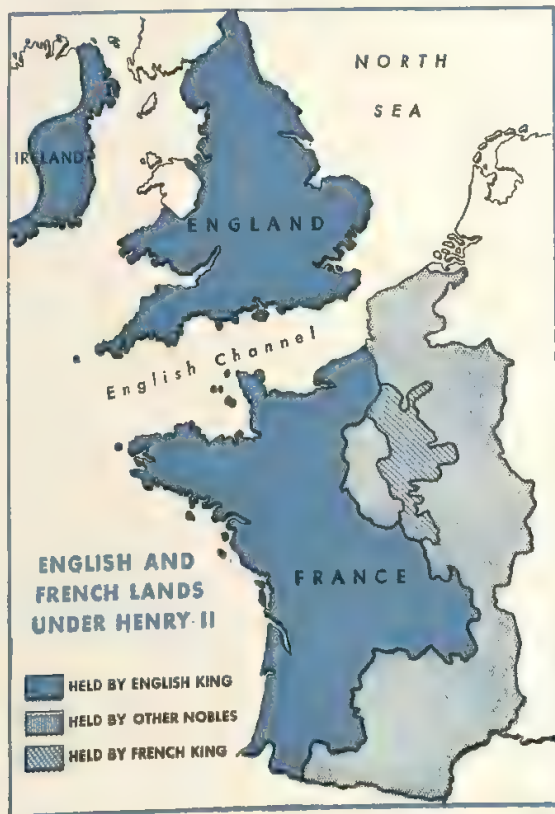
**Henry II** William the Conqueror's successors were weak and England suffered from a long civil war. For that reason the English people were glad to have Henry II (1154-1189) come to the throne. He was one of the ablest kings England ever had. Henry was the son of a French nobleman, and his mother was the granddaughter of William the Conqueror. Henry inherited lands in France as well as the throne of England. As a vassal to the king of France, he held more than half of that country. The feudal armies that he could raise from his French lands gave him power to subdue unruly nobles in England. The first thing he did when he came to the throne was to restore order.

Henry tried to gain complete control of the Church by appointing Thomas à Becket to serve as Archbishop of Canterbury. Becket was an officer of the Church but he was also in the king's service. As such, he had been of great aid to Henry. Becket was an able man, but also fond of warlike adventures, hunting, and a gay court life, which he maintained from the revenues of the churches he controlled.

To Henry's surprise, however, as Archbishop of Canterbury, Becket immediately asserted his authority against the king and opposed Henry's efforts to control the Church. Becket had to flee to France and the protection of the Pope to escape Henry's wrath. The quarrel was patched up, but when Becket returned to England and excommunicated some of the clergy, Henry cried in a fit of anger, "Is there no one to avenge me of this miserable clerk?" Someone took him literally and murdered Becket in Canterbury Cathedral. Shocked and fearful, Henry made peace with the Pope by returning property he had confiscated from the Church and supporting a Crusade.

Henry was interested in law, and he found great confusion in the courts of England. He wanted to get more law cases

*Henry II spent most of his reign in France, but he found time to be one of England's greatest rulers.*



tried in the king's court, especially cases dealing with the holding of land. In this way he took many cases out of the feudal courts. His judges traveled from place to place, holding trials where the people lived instead of where the king lived. They combined the legal customs they found there with the legal opinions laid down by the king's court. In this way they built up a body of law uniform for all England. This we call *common law*. It was more just and humane than the law of most feudal courts.

Trial by jury was another development under Henry's rule. Henry had men in each district bring to the attention of his judges anyone in the neighborhood suspected of wrongdoing and to accuse, or *indict*, them. This practice was the forerunner of our *grand jury*. Later another jury, the *petit jury*, developed. This was usually made up of twelve men who investigated a case, attended the court, and made a sworn statement as to the guilt or innocence of the accused. While the grand jury and petit jury did not function as they do today, our modern jury system had its origin in the juries of Henry II.

During his reign, Henry II took an important step that affected the later history of England; he began the conquest of Ireland. Ireland had always been divided into small kingdoms, each made up of several clans. During the late fifth century, while the English kingdoms were warring with each other, Ireland had been enjoying a period of quiet and prosperity. About 450 St. Patrick had introduced Christianity into Ireland. Monasteries had been established all over the island and learning and religion had developed. In another century Ireland was sending missionaries to Scotland and to the continent of Europe. But Irish culture declined after that, and in the

time of Henry II the clansmen were constantly fighting each other. Henry sent his son, John, to Ireland to gain control and rule the country. John, however, offended the chieftains, who turned against him. Neither Henry nor John was able to bring Ireland under subjection, but Henry claimed the title of "King of Ireland."

**Richard I** (the Lion-Hearted) Henry's son and successor, Richard I (or Lion-Hearted) was an ambitious knight but not much of a king. Of his ten years as king, about half of one year was spent in England, and then he was there for the purpose of getting funds for a Crusade. Some good came out of that, however. One of the ways he got money was by selling charters of self-government to towns. While the *selling* of these charters was bad, the rights which the towns gained were good. It was in the self-governing towns that the spirit of liberty developed.

**John** Richard's death brought to the throne his brother John (1199-1216), who was perhaps the least loved of all English kings. At the time John was ruling in England, Philip Augustus, who had gone on the Third Crusade, was ruling France. In a quarrel between the two monarchs John lost most of the lands he had held in France. As we have seen, John also quarreled with Pope Innocent III and became Innocent's vassal.

John had great difficulty with his own nobles, who disliked him, and for good reason. When John asked the nobles for money and demanded that they go with him on an expedition to France to regain the French lands from Philip Augustus, they refused. They said that their feudal obligations did not require them to fight outside





Meuer Photoart House

*John's anger at having to sign the Magna Carta is shown in the picture. His barons, across the table from him, are equally in earnest. The archbishop, with the pastoral staff, sided with the barons.*

England. After many threats on both sides, the barons drew up a charter and forced John to sign it. This famous document, known as the Magna Carta (măg nă kăr'tă) or Great Charter (1215), limited the king's power. While it guarded the rights of the nobles chiefly by limiting the power of the king and giving rights to the Great Council, it laid the foundation of English liberties.

There were many provisions in the Magna Carta. The most important ones for the modern world provided for the following:

1. No taxes might be levied, except the accustomed feudal dues, without the consent of the Great Council.
2. A free man should not be fined nor punished except in proportion to the greatness of his crime.
3. No free man should be imprisoned or punished without a trial by a jury of his equals.
4. If the king did not obey this charter, a group of twenty-five nobles should see to it that he did.

**Development of the Great Council, or Parliament** We have been reading of the English Great Council.

Now let us see how that body grew. It had its roots in Anglo-Saxon days. When William the Conqueror became ruler, he gave this body the name Great Council. King John had to recognize the importance and power of the Great Council when he signed the Magna Carta.

The next step in the development of the Great Council came when John's son, Henry III, was ruler. He became very unpopular with his subjects, and the nobles, led by Simon de Montfort, made war upon the king. Henry was made a prisoner in the Tower of London, a fortress built by William the Conqueror and used for centuries to house political prisoners. While Henry was in the Tower, Simon called a meeting of the Great Council. It was not composed of the nobles, abbots, and bishops only, as it had formerly been. He also called two knights from each county and two citizens from each large town. This meeting, which was held in 1265, was the first one to include anyone except the nobles of England.

When Edward I (1272-1307) was king he called a meeting of the Great Council, including the same groups of people that de Montfort had included. This meeting, in

1295, has come down through history as the Model Parliament. Since then, with the exception of one short period, the English government has been made up of nobles, commons, and king, though they have not always had an equal say in the affairs of state. A little later there was a division of Parliament into two houses, the House of Lords and the House of Commons. The members of the House of Lords inherited their right to sit there. The members of the House of Commons were elected.

The chief reason for the king's calling the Great Council in the Middle Ages was to get grants of money. But the Council often withheld these grants. It became a common practice for them to grant money only if the king would make reforms that the members wanted. In this way it came to be a lawmaking body as well as a body to vote money for the king's use.

Thus by the close of the Middle Ages England was a unified state with a king whose powers were limited to some extent. The Parliament, as the Great Council came to be called, was a well-established body with powers over taxation, the power to depose a tyrannical ruler, and with some say in the laws that were enacted.

1. What peoples invaded and conquered England?
2. How did William the Conqueror make the king a powerful figure?
3. What kinds of courts were there in England when Henry II came to the throne?
4. List the achievements of Henry II.
5. Explain: common law, grand jury, petit jury.
6. How did Ireland come under the rule of the king of England?
7. Why was King John such an unpopular ruler?

8. Tell the circumstances under which the Magna Carta was issued.
9. Give the date and the chief provisions of the Magna Carta.
10. Trace the development of the Great Council or Parliament.

## THE FRENCH KINGS UNIFY THEIR COUNTRY

**Geography Affects France** The development of France was along different lines from that of England. Her geographical position made it easy for France to be invaded for she did not have the sea for protection on all sides as England did. Neither could all her boundaries be readily defended. Power and authority came to be entrusted to one man rather than to a parliament, for a powerful king could act quickly in an emergency.

**Effect of Feudalism on France** But this consolidation of power in the hands of the king came about gradually. When Charlemagne's empire broke up, France was divided among nobles, each with his own vassals and castles. The king had little power. Feudalism in France worked against a strong central government.

**Philip Augustus** When Philip Augustus (1180-1223) became king, only Paris and a small portion of land around it were in the king's hands. The rest of France was ruled by powerful nobles. For a century a few vassals of the king had been growing more and more powerful by consolidating the petty fiefs under them into large ones. Of these vassals, King John of England, who held more than half of France, was the most powerful. But Philip wanted power, too; he was not content to

be ruler in name only. He soon found an excuse for opposing John and called John to his court in France. Although going to the lord's court when summoned was one of his obligations as a vassal, John refused to go. Philip, therefore, confiscated most of John's lands in France, leaving John only the southwest corner. Thus the king added greatly to the royal domain. In one way or another Philip managed to get lands from other vassals, too; and his successors continued the same policy.

Philip also increased the authority and prestige of the king in various ways. He favored the common people, often giving them positions in the government, and thus won their loyalty. He appointed officers who were responsible to him instead of to the feudal lords. He checked the power of the Church courts. By the time of his death, Philip Augustus had made the king more powerful than any of his vassals and he held more land than any of them.

**Philip IV (the Fair)** Philip the Fair (1285–1314) started some new developments in French government. One of these was a parliament known as the *Estates General*. This body however was not to gain control over the lawmaking and taxation as the English Parliament did. In the first place, France had no Magna Carta to force kings to keep the law. Also, the *Estates General* had three Estates, or orders: the clergy, the nobles, and the Third Estate. The Third Estate was made up of the landowners and merchants who were not nobles. The two upper Estates usually did what the king wanted done, and so they outvoted the Third Estate two to one. Philip also placed a direct tax on incomes, despite bitter opposition. The king had become the most powerful figure in France.



Bettmann Archive

*The men carrying maces, symbols of authority, keep order in this group of medieval doctors at the University of Paris.*

**Hundred Years' War** Beginning in 1337, a long series of wars was fought between England and France. Although fighting was not constant and there were long periods of truce, these wars were known as the Hundred Years' War. It came about in this way. Edward III of England claimed that he had inherited the French crown through his mother. He landed in France with an army to seize the throne. This was one direct cause of war, but this first phase was only a part of a struggle that had been going on between England and France for centuries. The English easily won, because of their new weapon, the long bow. They then wandered at will over the country. To add to the troubles of France, a civil war broke out between two groups of French nobles. Under these circumstances the dauphin (dô'fin), as the



French heir to the throne was called, was too weak even to have himself crowned.

At this point the spirit of nationalism was infused into the French armies by the French maid, Joan of Arc (ärk). Joan was a peasant girl who persuaded the king to let her lead the French armies. She inspired her troops with a love of their country and led them to victory at Orleans. After this victory, the king was crowned at Reims Cathedral, the traditional place for coronations. Later Joan fell into the hands of the English and was tried by a Church court on charges of witchcraft and heresy. She was found guilty and burned at the stake.

The leadership and courage of Joan of Arc had so inspired the French troops that the English were unable to win any more victories. Gradually they were pushed out of France until in 1453 they held only Calais.

Three hundred years had passed since Henry II had come to the English throne claiming half of France as fiefs from the French king. During that time, but especially during the Hundred Years' War, much English treasure and blood had been spent trying to hold that land. At last the question was settled.

### France at the Close of the Middle Ages

The war was won by France, but like all great wars, it brought about important changes other than territorial. Of far-reaching importance were the new weapons introduced during the period. Gunpowder, used for the first time in the latter part of the war, rendered armored knights practically useless. Therafter, by equipping an army of foot soldiers with guns and cannon, a king could destroy the walls of feudal castles and put the knights to rout. Feudal ways of fighting were no longer effective. This contributed to the decline of feudalism.

The war had wrought much destruction of property in France. Crime, beggary, and misery were seen on all sides. France had learned what invasion by foreigners could mean. France had also gained her national unity, but to gain that unity and to prevent foreign attacks, the king had won increased powers. The king now had a standing army and an annual tax that he could collect without asking permission. No one but the king had the right to raise and maintain an army. With a regular army and money to maintain it, the kings of France were well on their way to absolute power.

1. Why did the geography of France permit the king to gain more power than the kings of England?
2. How did Philip Augustus centralize the government of France?
3. How did Philip the Fair increase the power of the king of France?
4. Why did the *Estates General* not become strong enough to check the power of the king?
5. What were the results to France of the Hundred Years' War?

### SPANISH RULERS GAIN ABSOLUTE POWER

**Uniting Spain** Spain had been under the rule of the Moslems, or Moors, ever since they had conquered the country in the eighth century. As a result, for two hundred years Spain enjoyed a culture higher than that of any of her neighbors for the Moors were interested in literature and science. As time passed, the rule of the Moslems in Spain became increasingly despotic, and there were many revolts on the part of the Christian population. Small Christian states developed in the north and in-

creased in size. The chief states were Castile and Aragon. Portugal became independent, too. By 1250 the Moors held only Granada, a small state in the extreme southern part of the peninsula.

By that time, Spain was far from being a united nation. Mountainous territory, feudalism, and a mixed population of Jews, Moors, and Christians made national unity hard to achieve. This remained the condition until the marriage of Ferdinand of Aragon and Isabella of Castile more than two hundred years later. They merged their possessions into one and thus became the rulers in name, at least, of all of Spain except Granada. This they added in 1492 when they attacked the Moorish stronghold and drove the inhabitants out of Spain.

**Absolute Monarchy** Ferdinand and Isabella wanted to be absolute monarchs. By treachery and cruelty they put a stop to all opposition to their power. Wars were forbidden between nobles; castles could not be built without their consent; the Church was placed under their control. They were determined also to



Culver Service

*Ferdinand was seventeen and Isabella eighteen when they married. With their marriage the rise of Spain began.*

expel all Moors and Jews. Thousands were driven out and the courts of Inquisition were set up. These were Church courts established to hunt out and try heretics. Ferdinand and Isabella held these courts directly under their jurisdiction, and so many people were cruelly punished that the Inquisition came to have a dreaded name. By the end of the Middle Ages, Spain was firmly united under the rule of the king and queen.

## THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE HINDERS NATIONALISM

**Weakness of the East Frankish Kingdom** The Treaty of 870 had divided the Frankish Empire into the East Frankish Kingdom, the West Frankish Kingdom, and Italy. The East Frankish, or German, kingdom was beset by trials. A succession of weak rulers, often elected by the nobles, were unable to gain control of the warring nobles. The rulers were constantly troubled by the Slavic tribesmen east of them, especially the Czechs and Hungarians. The East Frankish Kingdom was a nation in name only.

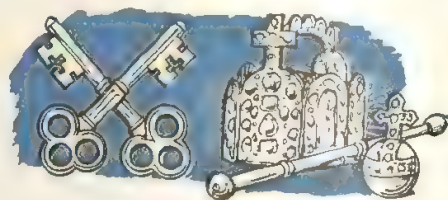


**Otto the Great** Finally an important figure arose in the East Frankish Kingdom. He was Otto the Great (936-973). Otto succeeded in making his power felt throughout the kingdom. He also defeated the Slavs and started to push them farther eastward, a process which continued for centuries. German settlers followed across the Elbe and into the Danube basin, Germanizing the native Slavs who remained there.

Then Otto turned his attention to Italy. The nineteen-year-old widow of an Italian nobleman appealed to Otto for aid. Her husband's rival had put her in prison for refusing to marry him. Otto went to Italy, defeated her captor, fell in love with the girl, and married her himself. Ten years later he made another trip to Italy to settle a dispute between the opposing factions there. This time he was named the successor of Charlemagne and crowned by the Pope as "Roman Emperor of the German Nation" in 962. Later this large territory came to be known as the Holy Roman Empire, and it was to last, in name at least, until 1806.

This political union of Italy and Germany had important effects upon both countries. The German rulers wasted their wealth and manpower in fruitless attempts to keep their Italian vassals loyal, and while they were away in Italy, their German vassals often staged revolts against them. Italy, on the other hand, was unable to become a nation as long as it had a foreign ruler across the Alps. Besides this, the emperors came into conflict with the popes because the popes resented their interference in Italian affairs, especially the affairs of the Church. Popes, too, sometimes felt that since they crowned the emperors, they had the right to select them. Despite all these troubles, the title of

emperor was a coveted one. There was respect, dignity, and influence attached to it. It was the highest title in Western Europe.



**Investiture Struggle** The most dramatic clash between the popes and emperors was the quarrel that took place between Pope Gregory VII and Emperor Henry IV (1054-1106). This struggle was over the right to appoint bishops and abbots. It is known as the Investiture Struggle. Many rulers had appointed the bishops and abbots themselves because the lands that went with the offices were fiefs granted by the ruler. But in some instances such men made poor Church officials and Pope Gregory was determined to change the practice. A war broke out between the forces of Henry and Gregory that lasted until after both men had died. It was not until 1122 in the Concordat of Worms, an agreement made in the city of Worms, that a settlement was made. This permitted the Popes to select the bishops and abbots and invest them with their symbols of office. In a separate ceremony the ruler was to invest them with their lands.

**Later Emperors** Later Holy Roman emperors had their difficulties, too. The popes, fearing the emperors' power, stirred up trouble for them among the towns of northern Italy. Gradually the towns gained almost complete independence and the emperors had to permit them to set up city-states. Northern Italy was



lost to the Empire. By the close of the Middle Ages the Holy Roman Empire was composed chiefly of German states, and the title of Emperor was an empty honor. Nevertheless, it continued, and largely because it did, neither the German states nor the Italian states were able to get together and form a nation as did England, France, and Spain.

## ADVANCES WERE MADE DURING THE MIDDLE AGES

**States of the Middle Ages** The national states of the Late Middle Ages were not based upon the popular support of the people of the country as modern states are. The first loyalty of the people was still to their locality. It was the king or the king and a group of nobles who represented the national state and who held it together. The people were not interested in the state.

**Steps forward** Despite the fact that civilization was at a low ebb during the Middle Ages, there were important advances made in Western Europe during that time. During the Early Middle Ages

the vigorous Germanic peoples took control of the decaying Western Roman Empire. Also during that time Christianity was introduced by zealous monks into the farthest outposts of Europe. As a result, all the cultures of Europe were Christian in character except that of Spain. Spain adopted for centuries the civilization of the Arabs who brought it, along with the Mohammedan religion, into the country.

During the Later Middle Ages feudalism grew, bringing some order into the West. Later the new middle, or burgher, class living in cities and towns developed. This class was destined to be the most important group in all the countries of the West. National states arose in England, France, Spain, and Portugal, and national states have remained the chief political unit of society ever since.

In England the Magna Carta was signed, for the first time limiting the king's power. Finally, the "Mother of Parliaments," the English Parliament, came into being. It developed into a form of representative government that became a pattern for most nations. Out of the Middle Ages came much that is basic in our Western culture.



1. What people occupied and ruled Spain in the eighth century?
2. What part did Charlemagne and later Ferdinand and Isabella play in regaining Spain as a Christian state?
3. How did Ferdinand and Isabella centralize the power of government in their own hands?
4. What was the Inquisition?
5. What were the conditions in the East Frankish Kingdom when Otto the Great became ruler?
6. Under what circumstances was he made emperor?

7. How did the Empire affect the future of Germany? of Italy?
8. Tell the story of the quarrel between Henry IV and Gregory VII.
9. How did the Empire differ at the end of the Middle Ages from what it had been in the days of Henry IV?
10. How did national states of the Late Middle Ages differ from national states of today?
11. What important advances were made during the Middle Ages?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Alfred the Great and Charlemagne are considered the two greatest rulers between the fall of Rome and the year 1000. In what ways were they alike?

2. The Normans were the last people to conquer England. Later rulers planned to do so, but were unable to. Why? Is England as safe against invasion today as she was in 1500?

3. Why did medieval kings try to keep down the number of castles held by their vassals? Why did the kings themselves have castles in different parts of their countries?

4. What benefits, if any, did England obtain from her connection with France in the Middle Ages?

5. Why is a grand jury desirable even when there is a petit or trial jury?

6. Why is the right of trial by jury so prized by English-speaking people everywhere?

7. The Seventh Amendment to the Constitution of the United States guarantees the right to trial by jury in suits involving over \$20. Why not in suits involving smaller sums?

8. If a nineteenth-century king had spent so little time on official business as Richard the Lion-Hearted did, he would have been condemned. The fact that Richard was highly praised shows that medieval ideas were very different. Explain.

9. There is a saying that whoever holds the purse strings of a nation controls the nation. Explain how that saying was borne out in the development of the power of Parliament.

10. Is the old problem of France, fear of invasion, still a problem with her?

11. Why might the Hundred Years' War be called a useless war?

12. Is it possible to interest people in a religion by such methods as those used by the courts of Inquisition in Medieval Spain? Is religious persecution practiced in any parts of the world today?

13. Was it to the interest of France in the Middle Ages to have united or disunited German states next to her? Why?

14. Who, in your opinion, got the greater advantage in the settlement of the investiture struggle in the Holy Roman Empire?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

Angles • barons • Celts • Concordat of Worms • Danes • *Estates General* • grand jury • Great Council • House of Commons • House of Lords • Inquisition • Investiture struggle • Jutes • Magna Carta • Moors • Parliament • petit jury • Salisbury oath • Saxons • Third Estate •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

1000 B.C. • 55 B.C. • 870 • 962 • 1066 • 1122 • 1215 • 1265 • 1295 • 1346 • 1492 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

a. • Aragon • Brittany • Calais • Castile • Denmark • Italy • English Channel • Granada • Hastings • Ireland • Holy Roman Empire • Normandy • Orleans • Portugal • Pyrenees Mountains • Reims • Salisbury • West Frankish Kingdom • Worms •

b. Show the lands held by Henry II and by Otto the Great.

**4. Can you identify these men?**

• Alfred the Great • Caesar • Canute • Charlemagne • Simon de Montfort • Edward I • Edward III • Ferdinand • Gregory VII • Hadrian • Harold • Henry II • Henry III • Henry IV (Emperor) • Isabella • John • Joan of Arc • Otto the Great • Philip Augustus • Philip IV • Richard the Lion-Hearted • St. Patrick • William the Conqueror •

**II. Can You Express Yourself Well?**

1. There are many interesting topics on the history of this period not covered or only mentioned in the text. Select one of the following for further reading and an oral report:

• The reign of Alfred the Great • The quarrel between Henry II and Thomas à Becket • The Domesday Book • Strongbow in Ireland • King John's quarrel with Innocent III • King John's quarrel with Philip Augustus • Why John signed the Magna Carta • The reign of Canute • The origin of the office of Prince of Wales • The Alhambra • The Moorish stronghold of Granada • Henry IV at Canossa • The life of Joan of Arc •

2. The French liked to give their kings and nobles nicknames. One pupil may make a list of these amusing and interesting names for the class. Start with Charlemagne's mother.

3. Draw a cartoon or draw or paint a picture of one of the following episodes: (Watch the dress of the people)

• Caesar landing in Britain • The defeat of the Danes by Alfred • The Norman defeat of Harold • St. Patrick, in Ireland • Richard's return from the Crusades • A townsman at the Model Parliament • Crowning the King of France after the defeat of the English at Orleans • Driving the Moors out of Granada • Crowning Otto the Great •

4. List the advances made by mankind toward democratic processes in the centuries covered in this chapter.

**III. Group Assignments**

1. Construct a time line, beginning with the conversion of Ireland by St. Patrick and follow the relations of England and Ireland as they are outlined in this unit. Add to the time line as our study of these two countries continues.

2. If possible obtain the set of four records from the Columbia Broadcasting System which dramatizes the signing of the Magna Carta. If these are not available, write and present for the class a 10-minute drama of this historic episode.

3. Medieval costumes were very picturesque. Add to your collection of dolls by dressing some in the costumes of the period: a serf, a monk, a nun, a lady of the thirteenth century, a knight, or a king.

**IV. History in Our Language**

English is a very rich language because it is derived from several sources. In a good dictionary find two or three words that come from each of the following languages: Anglo-Saxon, Latin, Greek, French, Danish.

**V. At the Blackboard**

Make a list in chronological order of the important steps in the development of the English Parliament using the material in this section on that subject. Later in this book you will learn of further changes in Parliament which you can add to your list.

**VI. Picture Study**

1. Why is the tapestry (page 196) of interest to historians?

2. Why are there bishops in the picture on page 199?





## 18 Distant Peoples Build Their Cultures

**W**hile both Western and Eastern Europe were undergoing slow but very radical changes in their culture in the Middle Ages, the civilizations of Asia and the Western Hemisphere were likewise developing. China, Japan, India, and America were far removed from Europe because of the poor means of communication. They were untouched by the Germanic invasions; only China and India were affected by the Tartar conquests, and India by the Moslem conquests. Most of the medieval Europeans went on their way ignorant of the happenings in, or even the existence of, these far-off lands.

### CHINESE CULTURE LED THE WAY IN THE EAST

After the fall of the Han Dynasty (200 A.D.) there was a period of confusion in

*There are evidences in modern China of the poverty and need of the people for land. In this farm village near Shanghai, shacks are built on the banks of the canal to save ground for rice growing.*

China known as her "Dark Ages." China lost much of her outlying territory and shrank to China Proper. Invaders from the North pushed the Chinese back to the Yangtze (yǎng'tsě) River Valley. The invaders often adopted Chinese dress, speech, and customs. It was in this period that the Chinese either originated many new ideas or adopted those of others. They began to be tea drinkers. They discovered that "black stones" would burn and were practical for heating their homes. The wheelbarrow, sedan chair, and water wheel came into use. Buddhism spread very rapidly through China and with it came the type of painting and sculpture used in Buddhist India.

**T'ang Dynasty** The T'ang Dynasty (618-907) was a brilliant period in Chinese history, beside which the civiliza-



Ewing Galloway

tion in Charlemagne's Empire seems semi-barbaric. China at that time could be compared to the Moslem world of the same period in power, wealth, and culture. In extent China stretched from Manchuria and Mongolia south to Indo-China and west to central Asia. She carried on trade both by ships and by overland caravan routes. This brought her into contact with Arabs, Jews, Persians, Tartars, Syrians, and Greeks.

The greatest Chinese painter, Wu Tao-tzu (wōō tou tsū), whose influence is still felt today, lived in this period. The first ink, paper, pencils, and printing were produced among the Chinese. In the eighth century the Chinese replaced hand printing with block printing. They carved an entire page of figures on one wooden block and then stamped as many copies of the page as they wanted. Sometime later the Chinese invented movable type, which made it unnecessary to carve so many separate blocks. The Buddhist religion stimulated an interest in printing because the Buddhist monks thought that they would be especially blessed if they duplicated the sacred scriptures and distributed them to other people to read. Printing led the Chinese in the tenth century to make the first playing cards and paper money.

The Chinese taught themselves very early how to twist the threads of the silk-worm cocoon and weave them into silk cloth, which they dyed with gay colors and embroidered in beautiful designs. Silk-making came to be a major industry of China.

**Sung Dynasty** During the Sung Dynasty (960-1279) the government was inefficient, but Chinese arts and scholarship were on a high plane. Exquisite painting and beautiful porcelain vases and dishes were produced. Painting flowers,

birds, butterflies, and landscapes became a fine art in China. Poetry and novels of high quality were added to Chinese literature.

**Yüan Dynasty** Genghis Khan (jeng'gīs kān') the cruel Mongol conqueror of European and Asian lands, added parts of Chinese territory to his empire, but it was not until the rule of his grandson, Kublai Khan (kōō'blī), that all the vast territory of China was conquered and the Mongol Dynasty set up. This was called the Yüan (Mongol) Dynasty (1279-1368). The Khan adopted the Chinese institutions, which he admired greatly, and ruled as much as possible as a Chinese monarch. In Europe the Khan's empire extended from Poland and Russia to the Pacific, and from Mongolia to Indo-China. It was during his reign that merchants came in numbers into China Proper. Trade was carried on over caravan routes to all parts of the empire. Merchants from as far away as Italy came to see, and perhaps to buy, the rich produce of China: tea, silk, pottery, jade, and paintings. The Moslem traders brought their

*The poverty of this family is evident in the clothes, the house, and the crude buggy for the baby.*

Associated Press





faith, and the Christian Church attempted, without much success, to bring its faith into China, too. With the death of Kublai Khan the Yüan Dynasty grew weak, and within less than a century the Chinese had driven out their Mongol rulers.

**Ming Dynasty** The purely Chinese rulers of the Ming Dynasty (1368-1644) were powerful and controlled a vast territory, but the civilization of their day was not so vigorous as it had been. The people were less interested in ideas. It was, however, a period of building. In addition to the southern capital at Nanking, a new northern capital was erected at Peking. The Great Wall of China was further extended.

During the Ming Dynasty, Europeans established themselves on the fringes of China and in the neighboring lands. China and the West were now nearer each other because of better ships which Western Europeans had learned to build and the knowledge of geography they had.

Since the end of the Manchu Dynasty (1644-1912), which followed the Ming, the Chinese people have been struggling to create a government for their vast country.

1. Why did Europeans know so little of the happenings in other parts of the world during the Middle Ages?
2. In the period which followed the fall of the Han Dynasty what new things did the Chinese learn?
3. Why was the T'ang Dynasty considered a brilliant period in Chinese history?
4. In what arts did the Chinese excel in the Sung Dynasty?
5. Who were the rulers of China during the Yüan Dynasty?
6. Why did the East and West come nearer together in the Ming Dynasty?

## JAPAN GETS HER CULTURE FROM CHINA

**Geography** The empire of Japan occupies four main islands whose combined area is about the same as that of California. The climate is temperate and good for agriculture, but the soil is poor. Only seventeen per cent of it has been cultivated. The country lacks minerals, too, so that Japan is a poor country. Because it lies so near to the mainland of Asia, what happens on the continent is of importance to Japan.

**Japan before Chinese Influence** Little is known of the origin of the Japanese people or of their way of life before they came under the influence of Chinese civilization. We do know that the population was loosely organized into clans. The head of a particularly powerful clan became the emperor of the country. Although from time to time other men have exerted influence, one leading family has retained the emperorship of Japan from the centuries before the discovery of America up to the present time. The leaders of each clan constituted the aristocracy of early Japan. Attached to each clan were the workers who were organized into what we might call guilds. Below them in the social and economic organization were the slaves.

Everyday life was simple. Hunting and fishing were carried on, and rice was raised for grain. Pottery and cloth making were the main occupations. The religion was simple, too. The Japanese believed that all objects had life and they worshipped them. Some were more important than others.

**Chinese Influence** As early as the Han Dynasty the Chinese discovered Japan and began to exert an influence upon its civilization. Chinese travelers, mer-



chants, and artists went to Japan, probably by way of Korea. The Japanese had a settlement on the tip of Korea where they came into contact with the Chinese. Chinese influence increased through the centuries of the T'ang and Sung Dynasties until Japan had adopted much of her culture.

It was from the Chinese that the Japanese learned the art of writing. With writing came Chinese literature, especially the works of Confucius. Inspired by these, the Japanese began to write their own history and the myths of their folklore. They compiled codes of laws and wrote romantic tales in both prose and poetry.

During the T'ang Dynasty many Buddhist missionaries and traders from China went into Japan. The Buddhist monks built monasteries, roads, and bridges. They erected orphanages and homes for the infirm. Their temples, paintings, and sculpture were like those of China.

In time, the Japanese rulers saw the advantages of the centralized government of China and attempted to copy it. The clans in Japan were too strong to accept it entirely, however. Yet the emperor's power was greatly increased and the people accepted the belief that he was descended from the sun-goddess and was therefore divine. The government jobs in Japan went to the leaders of the clans rather than to those who could prove by civil service examinations that they were qualified to hold the jobs. The latter was the practice in China.

The capital of Japan was moved to the site of modern Kyoto (kyō'tō) in the late eighth century. There a new capital was built patterned after that of the T'ang Dynasty. It was the center of culture and refinement. The arts flourished. Beautiful and elaborate gardens were laid out around the palaces and the homes of the wealthy.



Courtesy Japan Travel Information Service

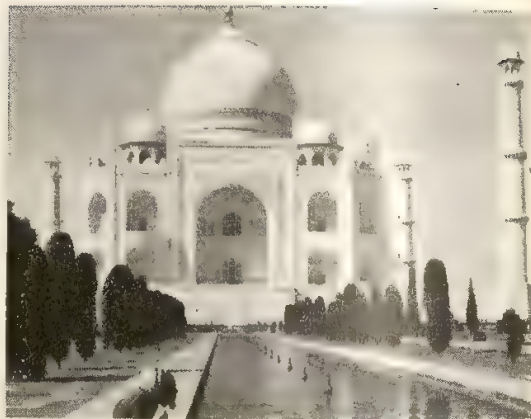
*These are three important industries of Japan: the cultivation of silkworms and manufacture of silk; salt-making by evaporation of sea water; and fishing.*

Painting was an important art of the time, and penmanship also.

**Feudalism** The heads of the great families of Japan retained not only their power but their lands. These were similar to the manors of Western Europe. As time passed, their owners became more and more independent of the emperor and Japan experienced a period of feudalism. The heads of the great families were called daimios (dī'myō), meaning "great names." Their armed followers were known as samurai (sām'ōō rī), "those who serve." The latter came to form a warrior caste whose symbol was the sword. As in medieval Europe, the great families spent much time fighting each other.

**Shogunate** Out of these rival wars there came in the late twelfth century the shogunate (shō'gōōn āt) which was the office of the shogun. This was not really a new title. It meant the "Barbarian-Subduing-General." General Yoritomo, who assumed that title in 1192, gave himself power that was new for the office. Officials of the government were dependent upon the shogun, and the warrior class became the real rulers of Japan. The emperor was shown reverence, but he was now only a figurehead.

1. Describe the geography of Japan.
2. Describe the government and life of the Japanese before they came into contact with the Chinese.
3. What influence did Japan have upon China?
4. Why did Japan not adopt the centralized government of China?
5. Why did feudalism develop in Japan?
6. What powers did the shogun have?
7. What was the position of the emperor after the shogunate began?



Monkneyer

*The Taj Mahal, the "queen of buildings," was erected by a ruler of India in honor of his deceased wife.*

## INDIA INVASIONS

**Gupta Empire** Although India is cut off from Asia on the north by the Himalaya Mountains, numerous invaders poured through the mountain passes, lured on by the stories of the fabulous riches of that giant triangle of southern Asia. Following a period of almost continuous disunity and invasion, the native Gupta family established an empire in northern India in the fourth century A.D. The Gupta Dynasty was one of the most brilliant in the history of India, and is sometimes called India's Golden Age. Buddhism and the Hindu religions flourished. Painting, architecture, sculpture, drama, and poetry of a high quality were produced. In the middle of the fifth century India was a center of learning, with great universities. But the invasion of the Huns brought an end to this.

**Moslem Invaders** In its expansion eastward the Mohammedan religion reached India in the 700's. From the eighth to the sixteenth century wave after wave of invading Moslems entered the peninsula from the north. Arabian, Turkish, Persian, and Mongolian Moslems came. It was a



Turkish ex-slave, Eibak, who founded the first Moslem dominion over India (1206). He made Delhi his capital. From there he ruled the people of the Ganges and Indus River valleys. His successors conquered most of India, but by the middle of the fourteenth century the Moslem Empire was weakened and several Hindu princes took part of their land.

One of the most famous Moslem invaders was Timur the Lame (Tamerlane), a descendant of the fierce Mongolians who ruled the vast empire of the thirteenth century. Timur entered India from the north in 1398, sacked Delhi, and killed and plundered as he went. He left behind him destruction and desolation. Although he was in India less than two years, he left the northern part of the country in turmoil. A little over a century later another member of the same Mongol family, Baber (bä'bēr), captured northern India and established a Mongol Empire with its capital at Delhi.

*The Great Mogul of India, Akbar, is receiving the Ambassador from Queen Elizabeth's Court.*

*Schoenfeld Collection from Three Lions*



Shortly after the death of Baber, his grandson, one of the most remarkable monarchs of history, became ruler. He was Akbar (äk'bār), another Mongol. Although he was a successful and courageous warrior, he was not noted so much for his conquests as for his peacetime reforms. He organized the government and started an efficient and honest civil service that served the people well. In his broadmindedness he hired Hindus as well as Mongols to work in the government. He himself married a Hindu girl. He reformed the tax and currency systems and established a uniform system of weights and measures. He removed taxes that had previously been levied on all non-Moslems.

Akbar was interested in all religions. Although he was a Moslem, he studied other faiths.

1. Describe the culture of the Gupta Empire.
2. By what route did invaders reach India?
3. Why did so many people invade India?
4. Who founded the first Moslem Empire in India?
5. What was the capital of the Moslem Empire?
6. Who was Timur the Lame? Baber? Akbar?

## CIVILIZATION SPRINGS UP IN THE WESTERN HEMISPHERE

**Coming of the Indians** It was probably about twenty or twenty-five thousand years ago that groups of Stone Age people migrated to the Western Hemisphere from Asia. They probably came by way of the Aleutian Islands and Alaska. Or perhaps at that time there was a land bridge connecting Siberia and Alaska. Through the centuries many of these people traveled slowly southward until both North and South America were sparsely settled with



tribes of people of bronze skin. Little is known of the steps by which they progressed, but when Europeans came to Mexico and Peru in the fifteenth century they found amazing civilizations there.

**Mayan Civilization** One of the centers of American Indian civilization was located in what are now Guatemala (gwä tē mä'lä), British Honduras (hön döō'räs), and the peninsula of Yucatan (yoo-kä tăn') in Mexico. Where these people, the Mayans, came from, and when their civilization was at its height are not definitely known. It is believed that they migrated there about 1000 B.C. and conquered a less progressive group of Indians.

The excavations and studies of the archeologists tell us something of the extraordinary Mayan culture. The city-state was the unit of government. The cities were connected by well-kept roads over which foot-messengers hurried. There were no horses or wheeled vehicles. Great rivalry existed among these city-states.

Mayan buildings were not so perfectly built as those of ancient Europe or Egypt,

*Archeologists have unearthed the Mayan town of Tikal in Guatemala. This model gives us a clear picture of the pyramid-shaped buildings, the "grand canal" in the center of the town, and the carefully planned streets.*

yet they reflect marked skill in workmanship. Many of their temples were pyramid-shaped and highly carved with grotesque figures. Their works of sculpture had great beauty. Streets of cities were paved with stone or cement. Canals and sewers helped to keep the cities dry and clean.

The Mayans had many gods, including the sun god and the god of night, the god of the moon, the north star, and the wind. They prayed to the god of corn, and they feared the god of death. Human sacrifices were offered to their deities.

The Mayans kept records but they did not have an alphabet. Their symbols were developed from an earlier picture writing. As in many civilizations, some of their most advanced ideas grew out of their religion. In order to keep an account of their religious feasts, the priests devised a calendar that was complicated but accurate. This required mathematical knowledge as well as some knowledge of astronomy. They knew the planets and constellations and the movements of the moon, and they could predict eclipses. The Mayan civilization was the highest of any Indian civilization.

In the Brooklyn Museum Collection



tion on the American continents before Europeans arrived at the close of the Middle Ages. It declined for some unknown reasons after 1000 A.D.

**Aztec Civilization** During the thirteenth century, groups of people known as Aztecs (ăz'tĕks) migrated south into Mexico, where they found the successors of the Mayas and learned much from them. The Aztecs were a war-like people who built a large and powerful empire. It was connected by a system of good roads and kept under control by a powerful army.

They built their beautiful capital on an island in the marshes of Texcoco on the present site of Mexico City. In 1520 the city had a population of about two hundred thousand. Stone causeways connected the island with the surrounding country. As a means of protection, drawbridges were built at intervals across the causeways. The city had wide streets, large market places, and impressive stone buildings.

Agriculture was the chief occupation of the Aztecs. They cultivated corn, tomatoes, yams, and potatoes, all of which were

*The Aztec calendar consisted of a series of pictures—a kind of hieroglyphic writing.*

*The Hayden Planetarium. American Museum of Natural History*



native to America and unknown in Medieval Europe. In their capital they had large granaries, which they kept filled for use in the event of drought or war. The land was held in common by the people, each family getting its share of the entire crop.

The religion of the Aztecs was a grim and bloody one. Their chief god was the god of war, who demanded human sacrifice. Prisoners of war were sold as slaves or used as sacrifices to the blood-thirsty god of war. There were many other deities, representing the forces of nature. A caste of priests lived well at the expense of the people.

The Aztecs had a calendar, although it was not as accurate as that of the Mayas. Their writing consisted of a set of symbols with which they kept records. Aztec craftsmen worked gold, silver, copper, bronze,



1 precious stones into jewelry, ornaments, and utensils that rivaled those of ancient Greece.

**Inca Civilization** To the south between what is now Colombia and central Chile, lived the Incas, who were more advanced than the Aztecs. They had come into the highlands of Peru from the east and gradually extended their rule over the tribes who lived there. By 1400 they had an empire including modern Ecuador, Peru, and Bolivia.

The Incas were skillful farmers. The land was hilly and poor, but by means of irrigation and terracing, large quantities of food were produced. Each village had its storehouse from which the people could be given their allotted share if for any reason their own supply was not sufficient. The land was not owned by individual farmers, but the government assigned each man a plot to work as long as he lived.

*Was it natural that the Incas should worship the sun as their chief god? Recall their basic occupation.*

Bettmann Archive



The religion of the Incas was not so cruel as that of the Aztecs. The emperor, or Inca, was held in great reverence as a descendant of the gods. The chief god, however, was the sun god who was kindly and helpful. In his honor the Incas built a magnificent temple, richly decorated in gold. Seldom were human sacrifices made to any of the numerous deities.

The government was well organized under the powerful Inca. He divided the empire into four sections, which were called the four quarters of the world. Each quarter was subdivided again and again until the smallest divisions were made up of ten families each. The head of each division was responsible to the head of the division above him. This system held the empire together, but it created a host of officials who had to be paid out of taxes.

Also to keep the empire tied together a remarkable system of roads and bridges was built, probably the best system of roads in the world of that day. The Incan engineers built their roads over marshy ground and across high plateaus. Bridges were swung on ropes over deep gullies, and spans were put across rivers and creeks. At strategic places fortresses were erected overlooking the surrounding countryside. Since the Incas knew nothing of wheeled vehicles, most of their roads were narrow, and communication and transportation were carried on by human runners and burden-bearers.

The Incas were highly skilled architects. Buildings were made of huge stones, each weighing many tons. The blocks were so carefully cut that they fitted together perfectly. Ruins of the Inca buildings show the expert work of their architects.

There were other arts, too, in Incan life. Craftsmen made fine cotton cloth, tapestries, and gold and silver jewelry. Incan



doctors, dentists, and surgeons were able to perform operations requiring skill.

The Incan system of keeping records was very odd. They had no writing like the picture and symbol writing of the Mayas and Aztecs. Instead they used knotted strings of different colors, each of which had a meaning. By these the priests managed to record some of the important happenings.

The civilizations of the Mayas, Aztecs, and Incas are all the more amazing when we remember that they were built without the use of either bronze or iron tools, or horses to use as beasts of burden.

1. About when did the Indians come into the Western Hemisphere?
2. By what route did they come?
3. Where were the three centers of Indian civilization?
4. In what arts did each civilization excel?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. It has been said that China always conquers her conquerors. From what you have read about China, do you agree with the statement?

2. There are periods in which changes in civilization come very rapidly and others when history moves very slowly. Which was true of China from the fourth to the seventeenth centuries?

3. How did the geography of China and Japan affect the development of those countries.

4. Was there any advantage to Japan in having every emperor come from the same family? Do you see any disadvantages?

5. In your opinion, what made Akbar a really great ruler?

6. In your opinion, were the Mayans as civilized as the Egyptians?

7. Why was the people of early cultures?

8. There are those who believe that as a whole is naturally lazy and progresses only when forced to do so by circumstances. Do you think that geography forced the Incas to learn new ways of farming?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• Buddhism • Confucianism • daimio • Great Wall • Mongols • samurai • shogun • shogunate •

2. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Alaska • Aleutian Islands • Ganges River • Guatemala • India • Indo-China • Indus River • British Honduras • California • Japan • Kyoto • Manchuria • Mexico • Mexico City • China Proper • Delhi • Mongolia • Peru • Poland • Siberia • Yangtze River • Yucatan Peninsula •

3. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Akbar • Baber • Eibak • Genghis Khan • Kublai Khan • Timur the Lame •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Conduct informal discussions in class on some of the following statements.

The Japanese were mere imitators.

The shogunate saved Japan from the confusion of a feudal state.

China is naturally a rich state.

Timur set back the culture of India.

The use of iron is not necessary to the development of a high civilization.

The making of a calendar is a mark of civilization.

There are no so-called racially "pure" people.

2. Select three members of the class to conduct a 10-minute radio broadcast in which each

# 5 · Milestones Toward Democracy



In most of Europe, the Early Middle Ages was a period of backwardness. Mankind's progress toward liberty and freedom was brought to a standstill by powerful kings. The common people lived in misery caused by poverty and warfare.

The German tribes were ruled by chieftains, elected by an assembly of freemen. But the Roman legal system was replaced by crude laws and superstition. There was, however, among the German tribes, almost no slavery such as had been common in the Roman Empire.

Feudalism brought about some order through definite agreements between lords and vassals, but the



common people were under the tyranny of the lords. In the Late Middle Ages the serfs demanded money wages. In England, serfdom disappeared.



Gradually throughout Europe the new middle class who lived in growing towns demanded and obtained some self-government, and townsmen were permitted to sit in parliaments.

reporter gives an "on-the-spot" report of the discovery of an Aztec or Incan city.

## III. For the Bulletin Board

1. Bring pictures of the products that originated in China, India, and America during the period covered in this unit and display them for the class. Bring samples of these products for a table display.

2. China has excelled in making fine vases.

Collect for the bulletin board pictures of such vases.

## IV. Picture Study

Study the pictures on page 211 and discuss in class the occupations and processes shown there. The woman in the top picture is tending the silk worms. How is salt produced in the United States? Do fishing boats in this country look like these Japanese boats?

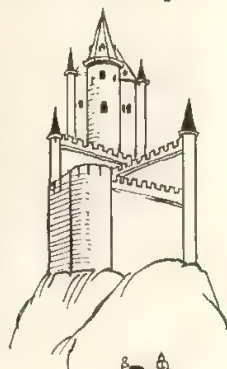


Important milestones toward democratic government were set up in England during the Late Middle Ages. These included travelling courts, the beginnings of the common law, trial by jury, the creation of the Great Council and eventually of Parliament, and the Magna Carta. All these developments weakened the power of kings and increased the rights of the people.



The picture was quite different in France, where the kings gradually obtained absolute power and the people had no political rights.

In Spain, an absolute monarchy and the Inquisition prevented progress in government and freedom of inquiry, and checked scientific research.



So throughout the Middle Ages, mankind took steps forward toward the democratic ideal in some areas and lost ground in others. But the far-reaching gains made in England during the period were permanent achievements for future generations to build upon.

## V. History Related to the Arts

1. Draw or paint pictures of Chinese, Hindu, Mongols, or Indians of the period discussed in this chapter, showing their dress.

2. Invite the art teacher or other authority to speak to the class on Chinese art.

## VI. An Assembly Program

Plan an assembly in which you portray people from the far parts of the medieval

world: a Hindu, a Chinese, a Japanese, a Russian, a Moslem from Arabia, an English knight, a serf from France, a Moor from Spain, and a Franciscan monk from Italy, dressed in the costume of his day and time, and each to describe some outstanding achievement of his country. Class committees will work on (a) the script, (b) costumes, (c) staging, and (d) rehearsals. Such an assembly would climax your study of the world during the Middle Ages.



# 5 • Milestones of Living



When the Western Roman Empire was invaded, Roman culture declined. Poverty, insecurity, and lack of trade and commerce brought many areas of progress to a standstill. In spite of this, the Middle Ages were not completely lacking in cultural achievements.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

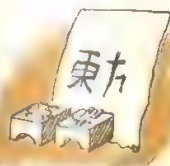


The Arabs who settled in Spain in the Early Middle Ages brought with them many products, new to Europe: rugs and tapestries, cloth, and new foods. Most of the Mohammedan world, however, was desolate, with poverty and invasions making cultural progress impossible.

In the fourteenth century a new weapon, the long bow, appeared in England. A century later, gunpowder was introduced in France, radically changing methods of waging war.



Meantime, far to the East, the Chinese were making silk, and weaving it into cloth, printing from blocks of type, burning coal, using the water wheel for power and the wheelbarrow, and, in the Late Middle Ages, building a new capital city.



## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

During the Early Middle Ages, Charlemagne revived learning throughout his empire by establishing abbey schools for the sons of freemen. At his death, this slight upward trend in civilization stopped.



About this same period the Mayans were discovering many of the principles of mathematics. They also knew something of astronomy.



In the monasteries of Europe, the monks maintained the only schools in existence for hundreds of years. They preserved for the world the learning of the Greeks by copying ancient manuscripts.

In the twelfth and thirteenth centuries, universities were established in England and France. But by far the largest number of the boys and girls of the Middle Ages had no educational opportunities.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

German invaders of the Western Empire created jewelry of gold and amber and worked with leather, but their civilization was on the whole very rough and crude. They made no contribution to the progress of culture.



Throughout Western Europe, Romanesque and Gothic churches were built; and in the Orient the Chinese painted on silk and porcelain, created music, made paper and delicate china, and produced poetry and novels of high quality.



The culture of the Moors in Spain was very high. Byzantine architecture was represented in their palaces and mosques, which they decorated with delicate mosaics. Moorish craftsmen created a variety of beautiful things.



In a part of the world unknown to Europe, the Mayans, Aztecs, and Incas were creating fine sculpture, working precious metals with an art that rivalled the art of ancient Greece, and developing a type of architecture.



Thus, owing to the genius and interest of a few, the world made some cultural progress following the destruction of Rome.

## GOOD READING

ANDREWS, FRANK EMERSON, *For Charlemagne!* Harper & Brothers, 1949

*Sigmund of Fulda came to Charlemagne's court to study at the school of Alcuin. There he not only studied but found plenty of action.*

AUGUR, HELEN, *Chanson de Roland*, Song of Roland translated by Merriam Sherwood, Longmans Green & Co. Inc., 1938

*The great tale of the Frankish warrior, Roland, is translated here in prose that high-school pupils will enjoy.*

CHANDLER, ANNA C., *Dragons on Guard*, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1944

*An imaginative account of some of the happenings in China during the T'ang, Sung, and Yüan Dynasties.*

COSTAIN, THOMAS B., *The Black Rose*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1945

*A young Englishman of the thirteenth century visits the court of the emperor of China. Exciting reading.*

DONAUER, FRIEDRICH, *The Long Defense*, Longmans, Green & Co. Inc., 1931

*The dramatic story of the last stand and the fall of the Eastern Roman Empire is told in this novel.*

EINHARD, *Life of Charlemagne*, American Book Company.

*Translation of the biography of Charlemagne written by the nephew-secretary of the Frankish king.*

GAER, JOSEPH, *How the Great Religions Began*, The McBride Co. Inc., 1929

GARDNER, HELEN, *Art through the Ages*, Harcourt Brace & Co., 1948

GRAY, ELIZABETH J., *Adam of the Road*, The Viking Press, 1942

*A delightful tale of a minstrel boy of thirteenth-century England.*

JANEWAY, ELIZABETH, *The Vikings*, Random House, 1951

*The author tells in a simple, imaginative way the story of Eric the Red and his son Lief.*

JEWETT, SOPHIE, *God's Troubadour: The Story of St. Francis of Assisi*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1940

*A book picturing one of the most appealing of saints.*

KELLY, ERIC P., *From Star to Star: A Story of Krakow in 1493*, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1944

*The story of a young nobleman at the University of*

*Krakow. Shows university life in the Middle Ages.*

KNIGHT, CLAYTON, *Quest of the Golden Condor*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1946

*Two boys go on an archaeological expedition but find themselves in breath-taking adventures.*

KYLE, ANNE D., *Apprentice of Florence*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933

*An apprentice to a silk merchant is sent to Constantinople just before the siege by the Turks. This is a fast-moving story full of important people and events.*

LANG, ANDREW (ED), *Arabian Nights' Entertainments*, Longmans Green & Co. Inc., 1929

*The stories of Sinbad the Sailor and Aladdin.*

LOWNSBERRY, ELOISE, *Boy Knight of Reims*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1927

*A beautiful story of a young apprentice in medieval France and the building of the great Reims Cathedral.*

MAYER, ALBERT I., JR., *Falconer's Son*, Ambassador Books, Ltd., 1941

*A vivid tale of life in the Holy Roman Empire in the days of Otto the Great.*

MILLS, DOROTHY, *Middle Ages*, G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1935

*A book written in an engaging style.*

MUNTZ, HOPE, *The Golden Warrior*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1949

*Portrays Harold the Saxon as a hero.*

PAINE, A. B., *Girl in White Armor*, The Macmillan Co., 1927

*This is one of a number of good biographies of Joan of Arc. Another is Jannette Eaton's Jeanne d'Arc, the Warrior Saint (Harper).*

PRICE, CHRISTINE, *Three Golden Nobles*, Longmans, Green & Co. Inc., 1951

*A serf, bound to the soil in fourteenth-century England, flees to London to become an apprentice to a painter.*

PLYLE, HOWARD, *Men of Iron*, Harper & Brothers, 1891

*A wonderful picture of the days of chivalry.*

SCOTT, SIR WALTER, *Ivanhoe*, Dodd, Mead & Co.

*A novel based on the life of the Anglo-Saxons under the Norman rule in twelfth-century England.*

SCOTT, SIR WALTER, *The Talisman*, Dodd, Mead & Co.

*A novel of the Third Crusade.*

WILMOT-BUXTON, E. M., *Story of the Crusades*, Thomas Y. Crowell, 1911

*One of the most popular accounts of the Crusades.*





*The Renaissance*

*extended man's horizons*





# RENAISSANCE



he word Renaissance means rebirth. During the period called the Renaissance, men of Western Europe turned again to the culture of the ancient Greeks and Romans. They studied Greek and Latin; they admired, copied, and drew inspiration from Greek sculpture and architecture. No past can be revived, however. What the people of the Renaissance did was to develop a new culture based on that of Medieval Europe to which they added ideas and inspirations gained from the Greek and Roman civilizations.

The Renaissance was the bridge between the Middle Ages and Modern Times in Europe. The Crusades had brought to Western Europe ideas of the East which stirred men's imaginations and minds. The growth of commerce in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries blossomed into the explorations and commerce of the Renaissance. The towns that developed after 1100 in Europe grew into flourishing Renaissance cities. And so the Renaissance had its beginnings in Medieval Europe, first in Italy in the late thirteenth century, where it flourished through the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. It moved across the Alps into France and from there into England.

In Medieval Europe the individual thought of himself as a part of a unit. He was a member of a universal church. He belonged to a certain manor. He fought to

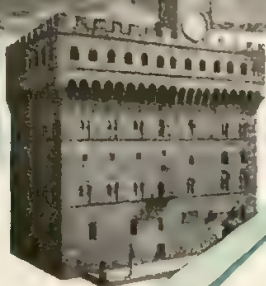
protect his town if he was a townsman. He might belong to a certain guild. The individual was thus a part of social, political, and economic units.

Gradually, however, men did break away from the manor and became free laborers on the farm, or they went into the villages to work or to set up shops of their own. The minds of some men were stirred to doubt the ideas that had been accepted unchallenged for generations; they began to think for themselves and to work out new theories and ideas concerning the world.

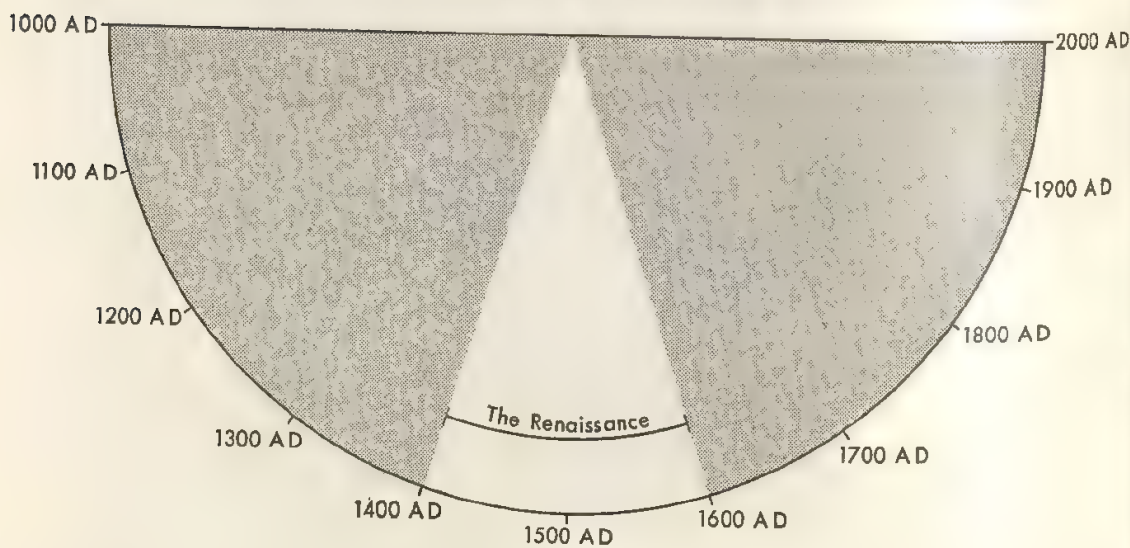
Because of their new interest in the physical world, European seamen left the safety of the seas along the shores of Europe and North Africa and began exploring far-off places. These explorations brought the people of Western Europe into contact with people of Asia and the Western Hemisphere, where they found cultures unlike their own.

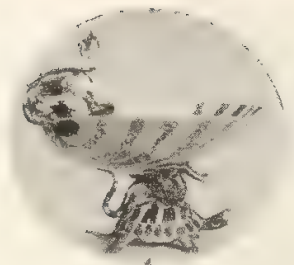
Several conditions caused the Renaissance of Western Europe to start in Italy. First, the trade of the Italian cities gave them wealth. Never before had there been so large a middle class with so much money. This brought them leisure to seek culture. Second, Italian towns were nearest to the Greek civilization of the Eastern Mediterranean world. Finally, the ancient civilization had never entirely died out in Italy. There was much of Latin literature hidden away in monasteries, and many important buildings of ancient Rome still stood.

Our title, decorative border, and initial letter are typical of books printed during the Renaissance.









## Learning and the Arts Are Revived in Europe

The new era known as the Renaissance was not a sudden “rebirth” but a gradual process over a long period of time. There were many evidences of the fact, however, that the Renaissance was indeed a new era.

### KINGS GAINED POWER

One of the changes during the Renaissance was in governments. During the Middle Ages feudal lords had been very powerful, often more so than kings. Now the power of the nobles declined, and many Western European kings became more and more the masters of their countries. Instead of getting their incomes from the feudal dues of the lords, kings now taxed their subjects for money with which to run their governments. Much of this money came from the new middle class, often called the bourgeoisie (bōōr zhīwá zē'), whose position was based on wealth. They contributed more to the nation's treasury than the nobles did and therefore became more important. Kings no longer depended upon feudal armies, but hired armies from the citizens of their own countries or foreigners who were more subject to the

king's control. With standing armies and taxation, rulers became more and more powerful. This was especially true in France and Spain.

**Machiavelli** The new position of kings was pictured in the works of the principal political writer of the Renaissance period, Niccolo Machiavelli (măk-iă vēl'li), who was born in Florence, Italy. Out of his experiences as secretary to rulers of Florence and from his observations he developed political ideas which he expressed in his chief work, *The Prince*. In this book he showed how a prince can strengthen his position as a ruler and add to his territory. He pictured the ruler as a despot who did not need to be guided when ruling by the same moral principles that guided his conduct as an individual. Cruelty and fraud could be practiced, he wrote, if the end justified the means. Machiavelli's book depicts the practices and the rulers of his day in Italy. Not all Renaissance rulers gained power by carrying out the ideas of government found in *The Prince*. Yet radical changes came about in governments during this period as a result of Machiavelli's influence.

## A NEW TYPE OF EDUCATION

**Humanists** The literature of the ancient Greeks had reflected an interest in *life*. They had been vitally interested in the world in which they lived. Later, students of the ancient Greek literature, which dealt with the nature and interests of man, were called Humanists. They became interested in this world rather than in a future life as the scholars of the Middle Ages had been. Everything in nature, science, and the arts that affected man *now* was important to the Humanists.

The Crusades had not put a stop to the menace of the Turks against the Eastern Empire. Instead, the Turks crossed the Aegean Sea and overran Greece and the Balkan Peninsula. Finally, in 1453, Constantinople was overthrown, and the Turkish, or Ottoman, Empire took the place of the Eastern

Roman Empire. The Christians were reduced to a state of serfdom. Many of the educated men who spoke Greek fled to Italy for safety. Some of them brought their Greek books with them. This increased interest among Italians in the ancient Greek literature and language so that it became quite the fashion in Italy to know a little Greek.

Humanism started in Italy but soon spread into France, England, and the Netherlands. Universities were established to teach new subjects. Educated men became interested. One of the greatest of these was the Dutchman, Erasmus (ĕ răz'mŭs) 1466-1536. He studied earnestly the New Testament in the original Greek and the writings of the early Greek Christians. He criticized some of the beliefs of the Church, which he said were based on superstition, in his book, *Praise of Folly*.



Historical Pictures Service

An old engraving pictures the social life of the wealthy people of Venice during the Renaissance period.



1. Why did the nobles lose their power during the Renaissance?
2. Why did kings and the new merchant class gain power during the Renaissance?
3. What were the theories of rulers of the Renaissance as given by Machiavelli in *The Prince*?
4. Who were the Humanists? Erasmus? What did they teach?

## THE RENAISSANCE EXPRESSES ITSELF IN LITERATURE

### Rise of National Languages

The Renaissance expressed itself also in *literature*. All important periods in history have had their own literature, and the Renaissance produced some of the world's greatest. During the Middle Ages nearly all writings were in Latin, but at the same time two groups of *spoken* languages were developing in Western Europe. Within the territory that had once been the Roman Empire grew the languages derived from Latin, which are called the Romance languages. These are Italian, French, Spanish, and Portuguese. North of the bounds of the Roman Empire languages were spoken that were derived from Germanic dialects: German, English, Norwegian, Dutch, and Swedish.

As early as the thirteenth century writers began using the language of everyday speech instead of Latin. The Renaissance writers continued this, and thus the language of the people became the language of their literature. The Bible was also translated into the languages of the people.

On the threshold of the Renaissance there lived four great writers, Dante (dăn'tè), Boccaccio (bök kăt'chö), and Petrarch (pě'-trärk) in Italy, and Geoffrey Chaucer (chö'-sēr) in England.



Culver Service

These people are a few of the pilgrims who are characters in Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales*.

Dante (1265-1321) wrote *The Divine Comedy* in Italian so that all Italians who could read could enjoy it. He wrote in the Tuscan tongue, that is, the language of the region of Tuscany. This became the literary language of Italy. In that respect Dante was as modern as the Renaissance which he helped to introduce. Dante's ideas were medieval, however. The theme of *The Divine Comedy* is the state of the soul after death and it gives us an understanding of the religious and social life of his day. *The Divine Comedy* is an epic poem.

The skillful storyteller, Giovanni Boccaccio (1313-1375) was the father of Italian prose as Dante was of Italian poetry. His greatest work was the *Decameron* (dē kām'-ēr ōn), a collection of one hundred short stories and one of the world's great books. The stories are full of life and very different from the pious tales of the medieval writers.

The great poet and scholar, Petrarch (1304-1374) was a citizen of Florence. In his youth he wrote in Italian, but later he spurned his native tongue and became devoted to classical Latin. He was one of the early supporters of the Humanist move-

ment. With his sonnets and lyrics, for which he is best known, he made Italy supreme in European literature.

Geoffrey Chaucer (1340–1400) wrote the first important poetry in English. His greatest work was *The Canterbury Tales*. Just as Dante gives us a glimpse into medieval thought, so Chaucer gives a picture of a cross section of life in his day in England.

**Later Writers** After the Renaissance was in full swing, a large number of great writers appeared. In France, Francois Rabelais (frän'swä räb ě lä') (1490–1553) produced in strong, vigorous French *The Inestimable Life of the Great Gargantua* (gär-gän'tü ä). This work was a commentary on education and politics, written with humor and sarcasm. It was not Rabelais, however, but John Calvin (1509–1564), a religious reformer, who gave the French the style of prose that they were to follow. His *Institutes of the Christian Religion* was written in simple and clear French prose. It is one of the greatest religious works.

Cervantes (sēr vãn'tēz) (1547–1616), the most important Renaissance writer of Spain, gave the world the book, *Don Quixote* (kwik'sõt). In this work he made fun of the old chivalry and made knighthood seem ridiculous by having his chief character, Don Quixote, who thought himself a knight, attempt to reform the world with disastrous results.

In England the Renaissance reached its height in the sixteenth century. The first of a long list of famous writers of that period was Sir Thomas More (1478–1535) who wrote *Utopia* (or the *Land of Nowhere*). Though it was written in Latin, it was a Humanist criticism of the society and government of his day. More, like Plato of ancient Greece, pictured an ideal city, in

which there was none of the ugliness and cruelty found in England's cities.

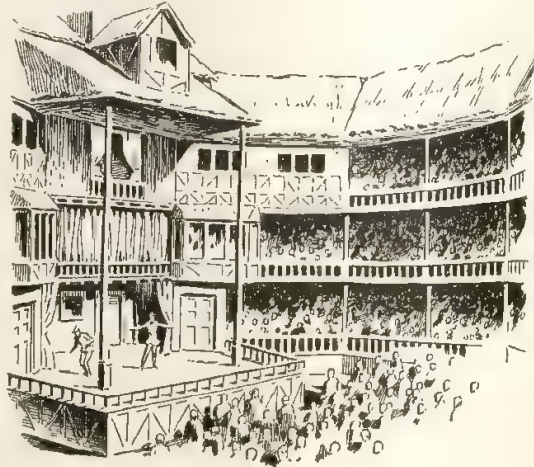
Edmund Spenser (1552–1599) was another great English Renaissance writer. In his *Faerie Queen* (Book I) the author writes of the virtues of the hero, Prince Arthur. Each virtue, Holiness, Temperance, Chastity, Friendship, Justice, and Courtesy, appears as a knight who fights an opposing vice. Among other things, the poem describes the tournaments and pageants of the Middle Ages.

Francis Bacon (1561–1626) was one of the greatest essay writers in all literature. He believed that men should study less the old philosophy of the Middle Ages and turn to the study of nature and natural sciences. He brought this out in his work *The Advancement of Learning*. In another work, *The New Atlantis*, Bacon depicted an ideal state. Through his writings Bacon did much to encourage the introduction of science into the curriculums of the schools and universities.

### Development of English Drama

Some of the most enduring literature ever written was the drama of the age of Queen

*In the theatre of Shakespeare's day, most of the audience stood in the unroofed pit.*



Elizabeth in England during the late Renaissance. During the Middle Ages the English had enjoyed miracle plays and mystery plays which were based upon Bible stories and the lives of the saints. These were followed by morality plays in which virtues and vices appeared as characters: Death, Goodness, Love, Greed, and Fellowship.

**Elizabethan Drama** These plays of the Middle Ages formed the background for Elizabethan drama. Then came Christopher Marlowe (1564-1593) and Ben Jonson (1572-1637). They were both great writers, but they were outshone by their more illustrious countryman, William Shakespeare (1564-1616), whose works are read today in a dozen or more languages. Shakespeare took old plots and stories and his imaginative mind made them over into masterpieces of drama and poetry. His works have never been excelled in any language.

The writers mentioned here were by no means all the great poets and prose writers of the period who were producing some of the world's finest literature. Throughout much of Europe there was a great outpouring of literature as men with new ideas expressed themselves through their writing.

1. What two groups of languages developed in Western Europe? Give examples of each.
2. How did the fall of Constantinople affect Western culture?
3. Comment on the contributions of Dante and Boccaccio to literature.
4. Why are *The Canterbury Tales* important?
5. Who wrote *Institutes of the Christian Religion*?
6. Name some English writers of the sixteenth century.

## THE RENAISSANCE EXPRESSES ITSELF IN ART

### New Type of Art

The art of the Renaissance grew out of the spirit of freedom and individuality of the times. Like the ancient Greek and Roman artists, those of the Renaissance were interested in people and their activities in this world. For the first time since the days of Rome, sculptors and painters depicted the human body. The medieval sculptors had carved faces, hands, and draperies, but the form of the human body could never be detected under the draperies. The Renaissance sculptors, on the other hand, studied the human body and knew how the muscles and joints worked so that they could make their figures more lifelike.

Art was taught by the apprenticeship method, just as trades were. That is, the master designed the work and his apprentices mixed the colors or handed him the brushes. Later, if they showed aptitude, they could paint minor parts, and still later they worked independently, often surpassing their masters. Such schools were maintained by outstanding artists in Florence, Venice, Rome, and other art centers. They contributed to the spread of art throughout Europe.

Fra Angelico (frä än jâ lê kô) (1387-1455), a monk of high talent, first painted frescoes and altarpieces for small churches and convents. When his order moved to St. Mark's in Florence, Fra Angelico decorated the convent with beautiful frescoes that are still admired and studied by students of art. The Pope summoned him to decorate parts of the Vatican, and this was his greatest work. Angelico painted only religious subjects, outstanding for their deep spiritual qualities.

Fortunately for artists of the period, and for the world, men of wealth became pa-





Courtesy Erich S. Hermann Inc., N.Y.

Some critics consider Raphael's *Sistine Madonna* to be the world's greatest painting.

trons of the arts during the Renaissance. Lorenzo de' Medici (dā mēd'ē chē) or Lorenzo the Magnificent, the ruler of Florence in the late fifteenth century, was perhaps the most noted of these men. His gardens, overlooking the city, contained some of the treasures of classical sculpture, while his palace was filled with the finest furnishings he could find. The Medicis were merchants and bankers, and their agents throughout the Mediterranean world were on the lookout for ancient writings and works of art as well as for merchandise.

But Lorenzo was also interested in the artists of Florence. He invited the more promising ones into his palace to work. Others were granted pensions so that they could follow their art without having to earn a living. The encouragement and aid he thus gave them accounted in large part

for Florence's contribution to the world of art during this period.

Some of the artists of the Renaissance were geniuses along other lines as well as painting. One of these was the amazing Leonardo da Vinci (lā'ō nār'dō dā vēm'chē) (1452-1519) who was a painter, sculptor, scientist, engineer, architect, and mathematician. Leonardo's work demonstrated that a painter could capture a person's appearance almost as accurately as a camera, and he worked hundreds of years before there were any cameras. In addition to his artistic talent, Leonardo was a scientist. In his paintings he experimented with colors and methods of painting; he also studied the human body painstakingly and sketched it in all sorts of poses. He was interested in hydraulics, geology, botany, and he spent much time trying to learn the secrets of flight and attempting to invent a flying machine. Many of his principles were sound.

Another genius of many talents was Michelangelo (mī kēl ān'jā lō) (1475-1564). He was an architect, sculptor, painter, and poet. In the early sixteenth century the Pope was building a new St. Peter's Cathedral in Rome. Michelangelo designed the dome, which is said to have the most perfect proportions of any dome in the world. The Pope also commissioned him to paint the ceiling of the Sistine Chapel in the Pope's palace, the Vatican. He completed the work in four and a half years. His picture of *The Last Judgment*, produced on a wall of the Sistine Chapel, is one of his most magnificent paintings.

Michelangelo was primarily a sculptor and his work makes him one of the world's chief artists. His statues of *Moses*, the *Bound Slave*, and *David* are among the world's greatest because they reveal so clearly the feelings of the people they represent.

A younger painter than Michelangelo, and in many ways very different from him, was Raphael Sanzio (râf'ă ěl sǎn tsyô') (1483-1520). He was also a poet and an architect, having helped to design St. Peter's Cathedral. But he is remembered chiefly for his paintings. He died when he was only thirty-seven, and yet he left more than fifty great pictures of the Madonna and Child as well as many portraits. There is a beauty and calmness in these paintings in contrast to the vigorous action in Michelangelo's works.

One of the most outstanding portrait painters of Renaissance Italy was Titian (tish'ăn) (1477-1576), a Venetian, who lived to be ninety-nine and was active almost until his death. He painted the portraits of many popes, cardinals, nobles, and ladies, and left the world a legacy in rich, mellow color such as no other artist has ever achieved.

In the Baptistry in Florence is a pair of doors that Michelangelo said were fit to be the doors of Paradise. The sculptor, Lorenzo Ghiberti (gĕ bĕr'tĕ) (1378-1455), spent over twenty years on this one work. The doors are of bronze, with designs in ten rectangular panels, each telling a Bible story.

The Renaissance spread into France, Spain, the Netherlands and England from Italy. The greatest painters in the north were the Dutch. The Van Eyck (vǎn ik') brothers, Hubert and John experimented in the use of oil to mix their paints instead of the white of egg that most painters had used up to the fifteenth century.

Franz Hals (1580-1666) is one of the most interesting portrait painters of all time. He often visited taverns and back streets to find his subjects, but he was also commissioned by noblemen to paint portraits.

Another of the important painters of the Netherlands was Rembrandt van Rijn

(rĭn') (1606-1669), who left more than five hundred paintings, in addition to hundreds of etchings and drawings. Rembrandt was a kindly man, with great sympathy for elderly people, whom he liked to paint. He was a master in the use of color and in showing light and shadow.

King Charles I of England invited Sir Anthony Van Dyck (vǎn dĭk') (1599-1641) to come from Holland to be his court painter. Here the great artist painted many pictures of the children of the king and was overwhelmed with commissions to paint people of the court. Like many Dutch painters, Van Dyck was a master in showing delicate details of lace, jewels, and cloth in his portraits.

In Spain, Diego Velasquez (vē lās'-kăth) (1599-1660) was the court painter of Philip IV. He spent much of his time painting portraits of the royal family. His aim was to reproduce natural appearance.

**Renaissance Architecture** Renaissance Italy took its inspiration from the classical architecture of the Greeks and Romans to create a new type of building. The Vatican and St. Peter's in Rome and St. Mark's in Venice are examples of the new type. The dome was used, but it was made taller and more graceful than the Roman dome. Greek porches and pillars were also used. This style of architecture spread outside Italy. St. Paul's in London is of this type and in the late eighteenth century it was introduced into the United States by Thomas Jefferson in designing his home.

**Music** Music flourished along with the other arts of the Renaissance. New instruments appeared that were far superior to the old ones. The harpsichord, the forerunner of the piano, and the violin were



Black Star

*St. Peter's cathedral is the largest in the world. It is not only a splendid example of the architecture of the Renaissance, but also a treasure house of art, for the popes commissioned many artists to beautify it.*

two of these. Orchestral music was outstanding and the first opera was presented in 1594.

The first master of composition was Giovanni Palestrina (pāl ɛs trē'nā), so named for the town in Italy in which he was born. Palestrina's first book of Masses appeared in 1554 and was so finely composed that it has been used ever since.

The arts of the Renaissance have never been surpassed. They showed life in all its aspects. Joy and sorrow, saintliness and worldliness, wealth and poverty were depicted. Many different materials were used, paint, bronze, stone, porcelain, wood. Whatever their materials or tools, the artists of the Renaissance beautified their world, and ours.

4. What new musical instruments came into use in the Renaissance? What new forms of music?
5. Describe a Renaissance building. Name some outstanding examples.
6. Who were the outstanding painters, sculptors, and architects of the Renaissance?

### THE RENAISSANCE EXPRESSES ITSELF IN SCIENCE

The Middle Ages had accepted as authority the knowledge of the past handed down from former generations. Most men were not interested in investigating the world in which they lived. The few who were interested used strange mixtures of magic and superstition. But Roger Bacon was a serious searcher for truth. He performed some experiments with metals and chemicals and probably had a crude microscope. He worked out theories that suggested the practical usefulness of many inventions that have since been made, including steam-

1. How did Renaissance art differ from the art of the Middle Ages?
2. How were young persons trained to be artists?
3. Who was Lorenzo the Magnificent?



ships, automobiles, and airplanes. Despite Bacon's work, the true scientific spirit did not develop until late in the Renaissance.

Long after Roger Bacon, a Polish astronomer, Nicolaus Copernicus (kō pēr'-nī kūs) (1473-1543), made use of the scientific method. He built an observatory from which he patiently studied the heavens. He concluded that the old theory of the universe was wrong. This theory, taught by the Hellenistic geographer Ptolemy (tōl'-ē mī), said that the earth is the center of the universe and the stars, sun, and planets revolve around it. Copernicus claimed that the earth is one of a number of planets that revolve around the sun. The Church rejected the new theory as contrary to the teachings of the Bible and the Church. It seemed to rob man of his dignity because he was no longer in the very heart of a universe that had been made for him.

Galileo (1564-1642), an Italian genius, perfected a telescope that made it possible for him to see a ship fifty miles away as clearly as though it were only five miles away. This instrument also aided in the study of astronomy. Galileo was a very popular and brilliant lecturer and writer. Discussing the theories of Copernicus, he told his audiences how he himself had seen the moons of Jupiter and the revolution of the planet on its axis. For this work he was summoned to appear before a Church court, where he was compelled to take back all his teachings or suffer long imprisonment and probably torture. It is said that as he left the trial he was heard to mutter, "But the earth does move." Galileo also discovered certain laws of the pendulum which made it possible to develop more satisfactory clocks. In experiments from the Leaning Tower of Pisa he proved that heavy and light objects fall at the same speed.

## The Printing Press

How could literature and the new scientific knowledge be made available to the people of Europe without such media as we have today: books, magazines, radio, and television? Fortunately, the most important invention of the Renaissance period appeared about 1450. This was movable type. Before that time, all books had to be copied by hand or printed from large wooden blocks. The credit for making the first satisfactory press using a separate block for each letter is given to a German, Johann Gutenberg (gōō'-t'n bĕrk), who printed a beautiful copy of the Bible about 1450. Carved letters were made and put together to print a page. When all the copies were printed, the same letters could be used for other pages.

Despite its simplicity, once somebody had thought of it, a more important invention than movable type has never been made. In the fourteenth century, paper had become common in Europe, taking the place of the much more costly parchment that had been used through the Middle Ages for making books. With paper and the printing press, the spread of knowledge was increased tremendously. Printed books were much cheaper than the old manuscripts written by hand had been, and the

*Gutenberg worked so secretly that his neighbors suspected he was a wizard having meetings with the devil.*

New York Public Library



common people could buy them. Since many people, instead of a few, could now own books, they were eager to learn to read. The knowledge that came from reading increased discussion regarding religion, science, literature, and government.

1. How did the attitude of the people of the Renaissance differ from that of the people of the Middle Ages as to the knowledge of nature?
2. What was the importance of the printing press?
3. Who were the chief Renaissance scientists, and what work did each of them contribute to science?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Is it true, as Machiavelli observed among the rulers of his day, that moral principles do not need to be practiced among nations as they should be among individuals? Would such practices among nations lead to peace?

2. Latin was the language common to all educated persons of the Middle Ages. It was a uniting influence among them. In modern times there are people who believe that a common language is needed for the same reason. In the late nineteenth century a Polish Jew made up a language for that purpose. It is called *Esperanto*. Would such a language be as useful as English or French for that purpose?

3. Why was it an important step for the common people when their literature began to be written in their spoken language?

4. The great figures of the Renaissance were the writers, artists, and rulers. Who are the great figures of today's civilization? Why is there that difference?

5. Why did it take much more courage in 1500 to announce a new theory regarding some phase of nature than it takes today?

6. It is said that art and science know no boundaries made by nations. What does that mean? Do you agree?

7. Francis Bacon complained about the backwardness of the schools of his day so far as the teaching of science was concerned. Do you think that today's schools are behind the times in any way?

8. Why are reformers and critics in our day often ridiculed for being "Utopians"?

9. Would democratic government as we have it in the United States today be possible without the printing press? Explain.

10. The new bourgeoisie class was based upon wealth rather than inheritance. Which is more democratic?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• bourgeoisie • Humanism • Humanist • miracle play • morality play • movable type • mystery play • Renaissance • Romance languages • Vatican •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1100 • about 1450 •

3. *Places to locate on the map*

• Balkan Peninsula • Constantinople • England • Florence • Holland • Italy • London • Milan • Norway • Portugal • Rome • Spain • Sweden • Venice • Washington •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Francis Bacon • Roger Bacon • Boccaccio • John Calvin • Cervantes • Charles I • Chaucer • Copernicus • Dante • da Vinci, Leonardo • Lorenzo de' Medici • Elizabeth I • Erasmus • Fra Angelico • Galileo • Ghiberti • Gutenberg, Johann • Hals • Jefferson • Jonson, Ben • Machiavelli • Marlowe, Christopher • Michelangelo • More, Sir Thomas •



Culver Service

Galileo was a skillful writer of dialogues, in which he explained his theories of the universe.

Palestrina • Petrarch • Rabelais • Raphael • Rembrandt • Shakespeare • Spenser, Edmund • Titian • Van Dyck • Van Eyck Brothers • Velasquez •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Look up in as many modern languages as you can the word for father or mother. Which of the words you find come from the Latin *pater* (father) or *mater* (mother)? Which of the words do not come from the Latin?

2. Give a report to the class on Esperanto. Write some of the characters on the board to show the class.

3. Certain subjects studied in colleges today are called the humanities. Consult a recent college catalogue and tell the class what subjects taught today come under the heading of humanities.

4. Make a report to the class on one of the Renaissance writers whose work appeals to you. In your school or public library you will find histories of literature which will help you.

5. Memorize one of Shakespeare's sonnets or a part of one of his plays to recite to the class. Your English teacher will suggest selections.

6. Galileo's telescope was designed to see a

ship fifty miles out at sea as if it were only five miles away. Today at Mt. Palomar Observatory the Hale "eye" sees 6,000,000,000,000,000,000 miles. How many times as far is that? Light travels at a speed of about 186,000 miles per second. The light from the distant stars that can be seen by the Hale "eye" left there how many years ago?

## III. History Related to the Arts

1. Make a booklet of a collection of pictures of one of the following:

• Italian Renaissance Painting • Renaissance Sculpture • Dutch Renaissance Painting • Renaissance Buildings •

Label each painting appropriately with name of artist, dates, and nationality or city. Write a short introduction to your booklet in which you tell what you know about the subject of your booklet. Pictures can be obtained from the Metropolitan Museum in New York City or from a company selling small colored prints.

2. If you are interested in music read in Bauer's *Music through the Ages* about Palestrina and his work or about some of the new instruments of the Renaissance period. Give a report to the class. If you choose Palestrina, illustrate your report with a recording.

3. Make a model of the Globe Theater of Shakespeare's day.

4. If you like the theater, you will be interested in learning more about the way in which Shakespeare's plays were originally produced. Give an oral report on the topic to the class. See Cheney's *The Theater* or Thorndike's *Shakespeare's Theater*.

## IV. Dramatization

Secure a recording of part of Shakespeare's *Julius Caesar* or *The Merchant of Venice* or *Macbeth* for the class. A committee should listen to the whole recording and decide what part of it is to be played in class.





# Men Search for Riches and Find New Lands

One characteristic of the early Renaissance was the rapid development of towns and the growth in their importance. Here the Italian cities led the way. Cities of other lands did not become independent but they grew in importance in the governments of their countries because they had wealth to contribute to the national government. Gradually laborers on manors found it to their advantage to seek work in towns, away from the manor. In many places manorial villages themselves grew into towns where trade was carried on. To many such towns the lords granted the right to have charters of self-government. The lords received taxes from the town as a whole instead of supporting their

manors from the old serf dues and labor that they had received in the Middle Ages. In this way serfdom and the manorial system gradually declined. This change of emphasis from a purely rural life to a civilization in which town life was important, too, was one striking difference between the Middle Ages and the Renaissance in Western Europe.

## THE BEGINNING OF THE CAPITALISTIC SYSTEM

Besides the breakdown of the manorial system, there were other important economic changes. The guilds were changing in character and a rift came between the

*Early bankers were usually rich merchants, also. Because trade that sprang up after the Crusades brought wealth to Italy, Florence, Venice, Genoa, and other cities in Italy were banking centers.*

Historica. Pictures Service



masters and the workmen. Many of the masters of the guilds became rich, while apprentices and journeymen were often very poor. Only a few journeymen ever became master workmen and members of the guilds. Instead, they continued to work for wages. The powerful group that ran the guilds often gained complete control over the business of the city in which they engaged, and drove out all others in that business. In this we see the beginning of the capitalistic system in which those who have money set up businesses to make a profit. They then invest the profits to make more profits. Since most men did not have the capital, or wealth, to invest, they worked for the others for wages.

The growth of trade brought about the formation of partnerships and stock companies in business. In a partnership, two or more persons are engaged in business. Each gets a share of the profits and each is responsible for any losses. Since much of the trade was done by sea, the investment required to go into business was large. In order to finance a fleet of ships, stock, or shares in a company, were sold and groups of stockholders made up the company. Such companies were formed in Western Europe to carry on trade with the East. Later, similar companies planted colonies in the New World and the East for the purpose of promoting trade there. Such names as London Company, Plymouth Company, Hudson's Bay Company, and many others were very familiar in this period.

Vast sums of money were accumulated by certain merchants and guild masters who lent money as a side line to their regular business. Later, banking was set up as a separate enterprise. Bankers lent money to trading companies to finance their businesses. They also made loans to towns, to

kings, and even to the pope to finance expensive wars. This was very profitable.

1. Explain how towns of different origins grew to be important.
2. Show how the changed methods of the guilds were the beginning of the capitalism.
3. Explain the terms partnership, stock company, and capitalism.
4. Name some trading companies that started during the Renaissance.

## THE AGE OF DISCOVERY OPENS UP A NEW WORLD

**Interest in Geography** During the Renaissance, Western Europeans extended their limited knowledge of geography. There were several reasons for this. The compass and the astrolabe, which told sailors the direction they were going and their location, had been invented. Ships were improved so that they were more seaworthy. The more thoughtful sailors now doubted that they would fall off the edge of the earth if they went too far out to sea. Better maps were made for their guidance, too. All these conditions stimulated an interest in geography and a willingness, sometimes even an eagerness, to explore.

**Marco Polo** Occasionally a more venturesome Western European went as far as China to trade. In the thirteenth century Marco Polo, of Venice, made such a trip. He lived for several years in the palace of Kublai Khan, the ruler of China. Upon his return to Venice, after an absence of twenty years, one of his friends described the great wealth of the East as related to him by the traveler. Marco Polo's descriptions of the cotton, sugar, spices, and gold to be found there stirred the

imaginations of the Italians, who now wanted more than ever to make direct contact with the Far East.

The trade and wealth of the Italian cities spurred on kings of the new national states of Western Europe to put forth every effort to gain wealth, too. They wanted to share in the riches of the East, for their new governments were expensive and needed new sources of wealth to finance national armies and navies. Because the Italian city-states controlled the trade of the eastern

Mediterranean, they were able to monopolize the trade that came overland from the Far East. Therefore, the national states of Western Europe were anxious to find all-water routes to the Orient.

### Portuguese Explorations

The little country of Portugal led in this geographical exploration. Her position on the Atlantic made her particularly fitted for this. Early explorations were encouraged by Prince Henry the Navigator. He founded a school for seamen and aided them in making their voyages. His expeditions pushed farther and farther down the western coast of Africa. Finally, Bartholomew Diaz (dē'ās), a very able Portuguese navigator, sailed around the Cape of Good Hope. Vasco da Gama (vās kō dā gā'mā) was given a commission to go farther. He went around Africa and landed in Calicut, India, in 1498. India had finally been reached by sailing around the vast African continent!

### Spanish Explorations

Spain's interest in finding her own all-water route to the Orient led to a discovery of much greater importance. Financed by Queen Isabella of Spain, Christopher Columbus determined to find a new route to the East. He believed that the eastern shores of Asia lay across the dark Atlantic, and so he set out with three small ships to get there. After a long, dangerous voyage, Columbus reached land. He went ashore, probably on one of the Bahamas, on what is October 12, 1492, in our modern calendar. He thought he had reached the Indies, a group of islands off the southeastern coast of Asia.

The Portuguese looked with jealousy upon the Spanish explorations. To settle the rivalry between the two powers, the





Pope issued a *bull*, or official decree, drawing a Demarcation Line across the Atlantic from pole to pole, 370 leagues west of the Cape Verde Islands. All the land west of that line that did not belong to another Christian king was to go to Spain, and all east of it to Portugal.

Columbus made three more trips to the New World, believing all the while that he had reached Asia. Even though he had not, he had opened the way for the exploration and colonization of the vast New World of North and South America.

The discoveries of Columbus inspired others to imitate him. An Italian named Amerigo Vespucci (vēs pōōt'chē) accompanied several expeditions that explored further the areas which Columbus had found. Vespucci became convinced that here was a new world, completely separate from Asia. Learning of Vespucci's theory, a German geographer suggested that the New World be called America in Amerigo's honor.

Vasco Nuñez de Balboa (dē bāl bō'á) hoped to find gold in the New World. He traveled through jungles and over mountains while crossing the Isthmus of Darien (Panama). Finally he looked down on a great blue ocean, which he called the South Sea.

Ferdinand Magellan sailed from Spain, rounding South America through the Straits of Magellan, and across the South Sea, to which he gave the name Pacific. He landed in the Philippines and was killed in a battle with the natives, but his expedition sailed around Africa and returned to Spain. This voyage circling the globe took three years. It demonstrated definitely the size and shape of the earth. It also proved that America was not a mere island or part of Asia, but a continent.

Ponce de Leon (pōn'thā dā lā ōn'), searching for the fountain of youth, explored Florida. Hernando Cortez (kōr'tēz) landed in Mexico and marched on the Aztecs at the present site of Mexico City. He drove out Montezuma, their ruler, and set himself up as governor. From there he explored Central America and California. Pizarro (pī zār'rō) marched down to Ecuador and took Peru with its vast riches from the Incas. De Soto explored the land around the lower Mississippi River. Through the daring travels and explorations of such men, Spain carved out for herself an empire in the New World.

**English Explorations** Other countries wanted their own all-water routes to the Far East. Since the English thought that the Spaniards had arrived in the Indies by going directly west, they decided to seek a northwest passage to India. In 1497 Henry VII licensed John Cabot, an Italian sailor, to explore the waters of the North Atlantic for a passageway to China and the Indies. Cabot reached the shores of what proved to be eastern North America. He was the first white man to reach that coast since the Northmen had visited it 500 years earlier. Cabot named one island Newfoundland, but he was not aware that he had touched a new continent. Other Englishmen later tried unsuccessfully to find a northwest passage.

**French Explorations** In 1524 Verrazano (vār rā tsā'nō), an Italian in the service of the king of France, laid a claim to a portion of the New World for France. He was really seeking a westerly route to the Far East when he explored the bays and mouths of rivers along the coast from what is now North Carolina to New

York. Ten years later the Frenchman Jacques Cartier (*kâr tyā'*) entered the St. Lawrence River and established a trading post which developed into the city of Montreal. Samuel de Champlain founded Quebec in 1608. Marquette, Joliet, and



Brown Brothers

*Much of our knowledge of the Indians and French in the Mississippi Valley comes from Marquette's journals.*

later La Salle enlarged French claims to the heart of North America, the Mississippi and St. Lawrence River systems.

### **New World Effects on Europe**

The vast amounts of gold and silver that the Spaniards obtained from their conquests had a far-reaching influence on Europe. All through the Middle Ages there had been little gold and silver. The sudden increase in the amount of coined money raised prices. The increase in her wealth made Spain the leading power in Europe. While the towns on the Atlantic increased in population and wealth because of the new trade, the Mediterranean trade centers decreased in importance. Venice and Genoa and the towns of southern Germany that had traded with them grew less important as the sea lanes of the world shifted from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic.

Still another result of the discoveries in the New World was the rivalry among

European nations for colonial possessions and wealth that flowed from them. To get the wealth safely to Europe, it became necessary to have larger navies. England and Spain developed into rival naval powers. Political and religious differences added to the antagonism between them. English seamen preyed upon Spanish shipping, stealing their cargoes of gold and silver. Sir Francis Drake and Captain John Hawkins were among the English leaders in this piracy.

**Spanish Armada** Finally the rivalry between England and Spain reached a climax in 1588 when the Spanish government threatened to get revenge for all the English attacks by invading the British Isles. For two years Philip II had his Invincible Armada in preparation.

The Spanish Armada set out on May 30, 1588, to accomplish Philip's aims. The fleet consisted of 150 ships and was to be joined by an army of 17,000 men then in the Netherlands putting down a rebellion. When the Armada arrived in the English Channel it greatly outnumbered the English ships; but the smaller and speedier English boats managed to do considerable damage while avoiding a general fight. A gale swept through the channel and the Spanish ships could not find any sheltered ports. They sailed into the North Sea, where many more ships and men were lost. Not more than one third returned to Spain. The Spanish plans had failed.

Spain never again threatened to invade England, although the rivalry between the two powers continued for many years. However, England gained greater confidence from the defeat of the Armada and soon began to build an American empire, confident that she could protect it from Spanish attacks.

## The Commercial Revolution

At the beginning of the Renaissance all of Western Europe was in communication and a lively trade was carried on in the Mediterranean Sea and along the coast of Europe. By the end of the period, sailors had pushed out to chart the coast of Africa; they had sailed across the Indian Ocean to the East Indies; and the leading nations of Europe had planted colonies and trading posts across the Atlantic on the American continents. The trade of the Mediterranean had become secondary in importance to that of the Atlantic and Indian Oceans. A commercial revolution had taken place.

1. What conditions and events brought about the Age of Discovery?
2. What part did Marco Polo play in the interest in trade with the Orient?
3. Who was Henry the Navigator?
4. Who were the chief Portuguese, Spanish, English, and French explorers and what did each accomplish?
5. Mention the chief effects of the geographical discoveries on Europe.
6. Of what importance was the defeat of the Spanish Armada to Spain? to England?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In what ways were the changes in the guilds a good thing?
2. How did the introduction of banking during the Renaissance bring about more business?
3. The early American explorers were primarily interested in gold and silver, thereby overlooking the real wealth of the Americas. Do you agree with this statement?
4. In what way did the location of Portugal help her to lead in early explorations?
5. Now that most of the lands of the world

have been discovered and explored, what opportunities are left for adventurous people?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• capital • capitalism • capitalist • commercial revolution • Demarcation Line • journeyman • partnership • Spanish Armada • stock company

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• 1492 • 1498 • 1588 • 1608

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

• Azores • Bahamas • Calicut • California • Cape of Good Hope • Cape Verde Islands • Central America • Demarcation Line • East Indies • Ecuador • English Channel • Florida • Genoa • Isthmus of Panama • Madeira Islands • Mexico • Mississippi River • Montreal • Newfoundland • New York • North Carolina • North Sea • Pacific Ocean • Peru • Philippines • Quebec • St. Lawrence River • Spice Islands • Straits of Magellan • Syria

*In what spirit did the Aztecs come to Cortez? The detail in this Aztec painting tells you.*

Bettmann Archive





#### 4. Can you identify these people?

• Vasco Nuñez de Balboa • John Cabot •  
 • Jacques Cartier • Samuel de Champlain •  
 Christopher Columbus • Hernando Cortez •  
 • Bartholomew Diaz • Sir Francis Drake •  
 • Vasco da Gama • Sir John Hawkins •  
 Henry VII • Henry the Navigator • Isabella  
 of Spain • Louis Joliet • René LaSalle •  
 Ferdinand Magellan • Jacques Marquette •  
 Mary, Queen of Scots • Montezuma • Philip  
 II of Spain • Francesco Pizarro • Marco  
 Polo • Ponce de Leon • Giovanni Verraz-  
 zano • Amerigo Vespucci •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Ask a pupil interested in mechanical devices to explain to the class the way the astrolabe and compass work.

2. Two pupils may present a dialogue between an Arab merchant and Vasco da Gama that might have taken place when the latter reached India.

3. Choose from among the following topics one on which to report orally to the class:

a. The career of one of the following Renaissance bankers:

• Jacques Coeur • Sir Richard Whittington •  
 • The Fuggers • The Bardi family • The  
 Peruzzi family •

b. The Hudson's Bay Company

c. The Plymouth Company

d. The London Company

e. Prince Henry the Navigator

## III. Cartoons

Make a cartoon related to one of the following topics:

a. Spain after the defeat of the Armada.

b. The failure of an English explorer to find the northwest passage because of Arctic ice barriers.

c. France becomes mistress of the heart of the North American Continent.

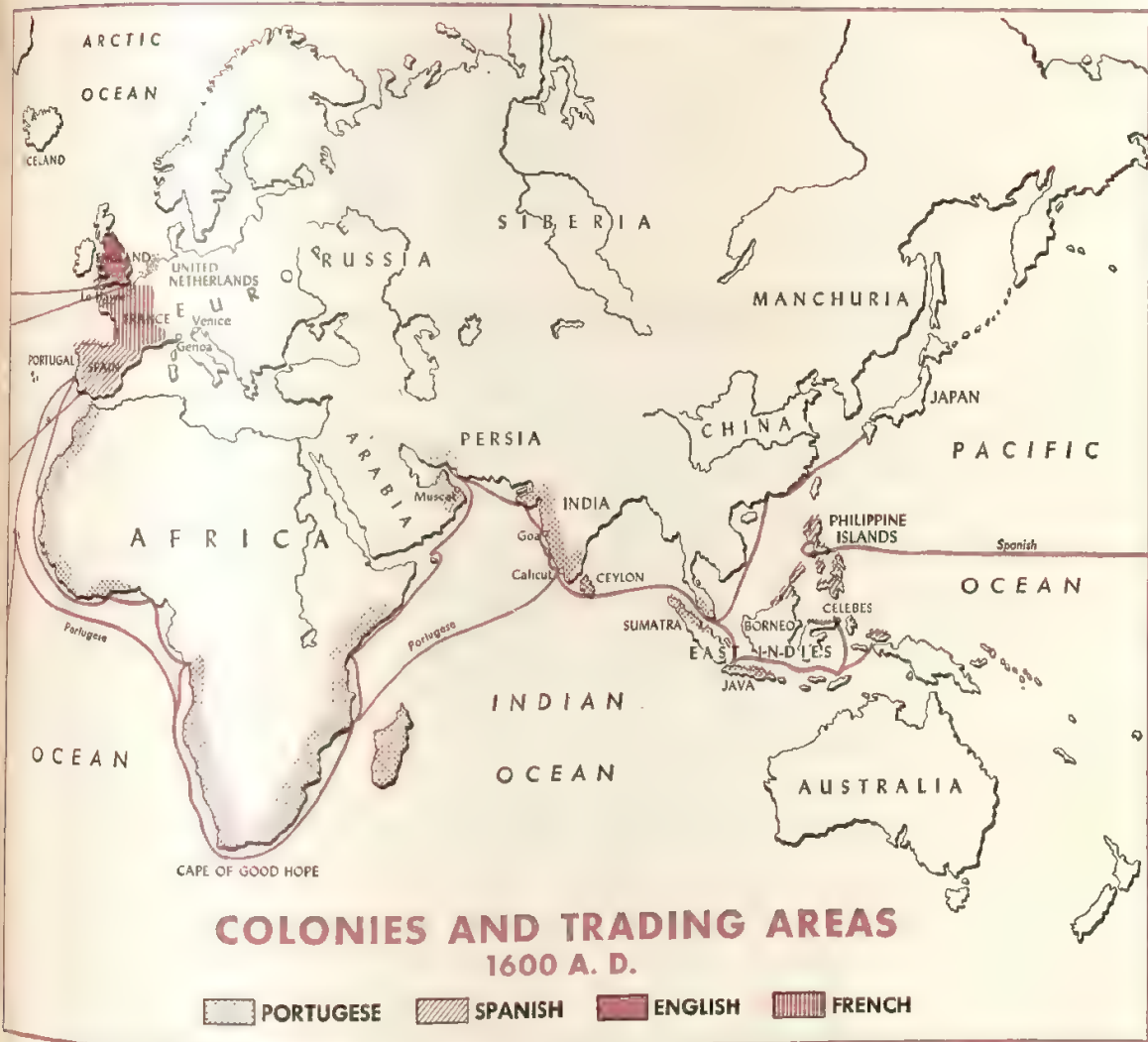


d. The increase of prices following the importation of gold and silver into Spain from America.

e. A king's attempt to force mercantilism upon his country.

## IV. Community Research

A pupil who is interested in banking and finance may interview a local banker to find out for the class how a stock company operates. Are there stock companies in your community? The class should hand in questions so the interviewer can be sure to get full information.



### V. Dramatization

Dramatize the return of Columbus to the court of Ferdinand and Isabella or the return of Marco Polo to his native city. Part of the dramatization should be the presentation of things brought back by the explorer.

### VI. Class Committee Work

1. Appoint a committee to make a large map of the world, 6' x 4'. On it show the routes of the chief explorers of the New World. Different colors can be used to show routes from different European countries. The name of the

explorer should be written along the route. On the same map can be shown the land claimed by each European country. The map on page 240 will be of help, but add the names and routes of explorers who came later.

2. Appoint another committee to collect maps of the Renaissance era showing the map makers' ideas of the world at that time. Label them giving date of the map. Place the maps on the bulletin board.

3. Pupils who are making models of ships should add the model of one of Columbus' ships to the collection.



## 21 *The Renaissance Influences Religions*

**D**uring the years when Europeans were seeking new trade routes, exploring vast new lands, and enlarging their world, some upheavals were taking place within the Christian Church.

During the Middle Ages the Church had been able to stamp out heresies, but in the sixteenth century the rebellion against certain ideas of the Church's creed was so strong that the Church was unable to put it down. Rather than surrender their convictions, the rebels preferred to leave the Church and organize their own church. This movement became known as the Protestant Revolt, or Reformation.

*John Wycliffe gave his own translation of the Bible to priests of the Church.*

Bettmann Archive



### ECONOMIC AND POLITICAL CAUSES OF THE REFORMATION

There were several major factors which contributed to the Reformation in the sixteenth century. The first of these was the rise of national states and absolute monarchies. Many rulers and many of their subjects objected to an international church. They wanted a church that owed no allegiance to a foreign pope. The new nationalistic spirit was an important factor in the Protestant Revolt.

The rapid expansion of commerce, the growth of cities, and the increase of wealth also changed the attitudes of many people toward the Church and its teaching. The Church had stressed spiritual qualities and preparation for the life hereafter; but those who were prospering in this world's goods and many of those who hoped to gain wealth believed that this world offered many opportunities for happiness, too. Businessmen felt themselves hampered by the Church's rules against borrowing money and lending money for interest. As they prospered, merchants developed a spirit of independence and individualism. If they could accumulate so much wealth through their own efforts, they reasoned, perhaps they could obtain God's spiritual blessings without the aid of anyone else.



Others believed that one could have his sins forgiven without the aid of a priest.

**Religious Causes** Another factor in the religious picture was the bitter criticism of the Church and its practices being written by many of the Humanists. With the invention of the printing press, more people learned to read, criticism of the Church reached more and more people, and they began to question what they saw. Many of the lower clergy were ignorant men, who lacked an education worthy of their positions. The bishops and abbots and even the popes were often worldly, living in luxury and ease and neglecting their religious duties. A famous poem, *Piers Plowman*, written in the fourteenth century in England by an unknown author, pointed up the neglect of the clergy. Many of the bishops appointed to Church office never went to their dioceses to perform their duties. Frequently these men were Italian and preferred to live in Italy, but they drew money from churches in Germany, England, or France. Then, too, many of the abbots and bishops were appointed by the kings more because they would favor the ruler's policy than because they would uphold the Christian religion.

There had been devout men who had cried out for reforms within the Church many years earlier. In the fourteenth century John Wycliffe preached in England against the luxury of the clergy, and he gathered about him other priests who wanted to live a simple life. In Bohemia, one of Wycliffe's followers, John Huss, translated and distributed Wycliffe's teachings and was burned at the stake because of his preaching against Church activities he thought wrong. Reform movements were started in monasteries, too. Then there was

Erasmus, the great Humanist, who did not want to break away from the Church but stated publicly that its practices needed reform. He believed there were superstitions in the Church which could be done away with gradually through education.

Early in the sixteenth century there were some very clear signs that reform must come. But Pope Leo X, a member of the Medici family, was too busy collecting objects of art and promoting building projects in Rome to heed the signs of unrest. Consequently, the rebellion broke out.

1. Mention the factors that contributed to the Protestant Revolt.
2. What part did each of the following play in reforming the Church: John Wycliffe, John Huss, Erasmus?

## LUTHER'S PROTESTS LEAD TO A NEW CHURCH

**Martin Luther** The Reformation was set off in Germany by Martin Luther. Luther was the son of a miner, but was educated to become a lawyer. He was disturbed by a sense of guilt and determined against his parents' wishes to become a monk. In the monastery he was very strict in fasting and prayer, hoping thus to find peace of mind and soul. Peace did come, but not through that method. It came in the thought that God is a loving Father who will save all men who have faith. Luther came to believe further that all persons who believed could interpret the Scriptures and preach. Luther's beliefs were not new. They had been voiced before, but the Church had condemned them. Luther was the first person to have his doctrines so widely accepted that they caused a break in the Medieval Church.



A modern movie entitled "Martin Luther" shows the monk at his trial before the Church authorities.

Courtesy Louis de Puchot, Apogee

Luther was particularly troubled because a monk was distributing indulgences in Wittenberg to get money to rebuild St. Peter's Church at Rome. The granting of indulgences was nothing new. The Church had always taught that when a person repented of his sin and confessed, he was forgiven, but he must perform an act of *penance* to release his soul from the punishment for the sin in purgatory. The penance might take the form of a pilgrimage, fasting, saying certain prayers, or giving gifts to the Church or money to the poor. Luther believed that these indulgences were wrong. If men are sorry for their sins and have faith in God, He will forgive them, Luther taught, without indulgences. Luther wrote out his objections in Latin in the form of ninety-five statements and tacked them on the door of the cathedral in Wittenberg, as was the custom in the universities of the day when a subject was to be debated. These were the famous *Ninety-Five Theses* of the year 1517 and may be considered the real beginning of the Reformation. Luther asked scholars to meet him in debate.

Instead of leaving the discussion of the indulgences to the scholars, someone translated the *Theses* into German and distributed them widely. They at once became a popular topic of spirited conversation throughout a number of German states.

**Diet of Worms** Luther gradually moved farther and farther from the teaching of the Church. Later he urged that the clergy be deprived of their special privileges. He said that their *duties*, not the clergy themselves, were sacred. He further asked that the nobles rid the country of foreign clergy and take over the vast wealth of the Church. He wanted German bishops to be appointed by German rulers with no interference from Rome. He also said that the clergy could marry if they wished. Thus he was attacking not just the practices of the Church, but the doctrine of the Church as well.

In answer to these attacks, the Pope excommunicated Luther, and the emperor called the German Diet at Worms to consider his case. The Diet was not a democratic

body but was composed of the rulers of the German states or their representatives. The Diet outlawed Luther and ordered his writings burned. People paid little attention to the decree, however. Instead, Luther's writings became popular throughout Germany. For a time Luther was hidden by his friends in a castle, where he spent his time translating the Bible into German.

**Peasant's Revolt** There had been unrest among the peasants of Germany for a long time. Now came Luther teaching the doctrine of equality of men before God. The peasants believed that he meant social and economic as well as religious equality. Finally they rebelled against their masters, demanding payment in wages and the abolition of serfdom. Luther, who did not want violence, urged the peasants to return to their work. When they refused, he told the nobles to put down the revolt in blood. With great cruelty the nobles went about the task. It is estimated that 50,000 peasants were killed in stamping out the revolt.

**Augsburg Confession** So many German rulers had become followers of Luther that Emperor Charles V called the Diet to meet at Augsburg to hear the Protestants, as they were called, state their case. A friend of Luther wrote out the beliefs of the reformers. This document is called the *Augsburg Confession*.

**Religious Peace of Augsburg** Not until 1555, nine years after Martin Luther's death, was another attempt made to discuss the German religious problem and work out some solution. In that year a Diet, meeting at Augsburg, issued the *Religious Peace of Augsburg* in which the following terms were agreed to: (1) The ruler of

each state in Germany was to determine whether his state was to be Roman Catholic or Lutheran, as the followers of Luther were called. All his subjects must accept the ruler's choice or leave the state. (2) Any clergyman becoming a Lutheran had to give up the Church lands he held. Thus religious toleration in Germany was limited, for no Protestant faith except the Lutheran was permitted and both Catholic and Lutheran rulers could compel their subjects to belong to the religion of the ruler.

The northern German states accepted the new faith quite generally. Lutheranism spread from there into Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. The southern German states, on the other hand, remained loyal to the Medieval Church.

1. Review Luther's life before he broke away from the Medieval Church.
2. What event and date are considered the beginning of the Reformation?
3. What were Luther's chief criticisms of the teachings of the Church?
4. How did Luther's teachings help bring about the Peasants' Revolt?
5. What was the Religious Peace of Augsburg?

## CALVINISM STARTS IN SWITZERLAND

**Ulrich Zwingli** In Switzerland the first religious reformer of this period was Ulrich Zwingli (tsvīng'li) who was quite as much a political reformer as a religious one. Zwingli attacked the papacy and insisted that the Bible rather than the Church was the guide to right living. As preacher in the Cathedral of Zurich he gained many followers. Zwingli was killed in a religious war.



**Calvinism** Not long after this, John Calvin arrived in Switzerland. He had been driven out of France by the king, who was determined to rid his country of all who were not loyal Roman Catholics. In Switzerland, Calvin wrote his famous *Institutes of the Christian Religion*. In this book he set forth his views on religion, views that had a great influence on other Protestant faiths. Calvinism spread to other countries. In Scotland the Calvinists became known as Presbyterians. The followers of Calvin in France were called Huguenots. In England Calvin's teachings were later put into practice by the Puritans.

To Calvinists the Bible was the sole authority for the means of salvation. Calvinism in all its forms was a very somber religion, for all luxury was banned and churches were severely plain. The order of worship was simple. Dancing, feasting on a lavish scale, and luxury in dress were frowned upon. Sunday was reserved for religion only. Most of the day was to be spent in church.



John Calvin's intellect and wide knowledge gave him influence with the growing class of business men in Europe.

**Edict of Nantes** Time and again French kings tried to wipe out the Huguenots, but they were not entirely suc-

cessful. Finally a Huguenot, Henry IV, came to the throne of France. He realized that in order to rule a Catholic country he would have to become a Catholic. In other words, Henry was willing to attend the Catholic service in order to be king of France. It is reported that he exclaimed, "Paris is worth a mass!" But though he became a Catholic, he did not forget his Protestant followers and friends. Moreover, he intended to put an end to the bloodshed over religion in France. Accordingly, he issued the *Edict of Nantes* in 1598, which was the first real edict of religious toleration in the modern world. Its chief provisions were the following: (1) Huguenots were permitted to worship wherever they wished except in Paris and certain other large cities. (2) They could hold meetings and have all political privileges that Catholics enjoyed. (3) They were given two hundred fortified towns to hold for eight years.

Nearly a hundred years of religious toleration in France followed the *Edict of Nantes*. In the rest of Europe, however, religious intolerance was the rule.

1. Tell in your own words the importance of each of the following men in carrying out the Reformation: Ulrich Zwingli, John Calvin, Henry IV.
2. What were some of the chief characteristics of Calvinism?
3. What were the provisions of the Edict of Nantes? Date?

### THE CHURCH OF ENGLAND CASTS OFF THE POPE'S POWER

On the eve of the Reformation in England there were many forces at work against the Pope and the practices of the Medieval Church. People had not forgotten Wy-

cliffe's teachings. The writings, such as *Piers Plowman* and *The Canterbury Tales*, depicting the selfishness of some of the clergy, had left their mark. In 1528 a book was written calling the clergy a "ravenous sort" who had got into their hands more than a third of the realm of England, referring to the large amount of land held by the Church. There had been so much dissatisfaction with the Pope's interference in English affairs that a ruling had been made as early as 1351 refusing to permit the Pope to make appointments to Church positions in England. Thus England was ripe for reform, and the insistence of a king upon the right to do as he pleased got it started.

Henry VIII (1509–1547), who was ruling in England at the time, was of the Tudor family. Most of the dynasties in England have come from abroad, but the Tudors were English. Moreover, they were very patriotic, and the English people were loyal to their king.

Henry had married his brother's widow, Catherine of Aragon, against the law of the Church. But the Pope had granted him a special dispensation to do so; that is, he had set aside the Church law in this matter. Now Henry wanted a divorce and the Pope refused his request. The Church did not permit divorces, but Henry thought that if one law could be set aside to let him marry, another could be set aside to grant him his divorce. The Pope kept putting him off, partly because Henry's wife was the aunt of Charles V of Spain whom the Pope did not want to offend. Then, too, if the Pope granted Henry's request he would be nullifying the dispensation that had already been given to the king to marry Catherine in the first place. Henry was determined to get the divorce. He wanted to marry a girl by whom he hoped to have a male heir.



Bettmann Archive

*Cardinal Wolsey looks on as Catherine of Aragon pleads her cause before Henry VIII.*

The English Parliament was willing to throw off the Pope's power in England, so they passed laws at Henry's request forbidding any money to be paid to the Pope. Also, no appeals were to be made to the Pope from England's courts. The king was to nominate all bishops. Then Henry went a step further and had Parliament pass an act making him head of the Church in England. Thus the Church in England was cut off entirely from the papacy. Henry considered himself a good Catholic and church services went on as usual. Most of the clergy took the oath of allegiance to Henry, but a few refused.

Because Henry was greedy for the wealth of the monasteries, he sent agents to inspect them and to bring back criticisms of them. Then Henry, having an excuse for doing so, shamelessly confiscated everything of value, even to the lead used on the roofs. The dissolution of the mon-

asteries had a profound effect upon England. Many schools and hospitals that the monks and nuns had maintained were closed. Travelers could find no place to stop overnight. An even worse effect of this destruction was the increase in the number of unemployed. Thousands of monks had to seek employment, as well as many thousands of peasants who had worked on the vast Church lands, because the people who took over the lands used them for raising sheep and the peasants who had farmed them were not needed any longer.

Henry soon tired of his second wife, Anne Boleyn, who had presented him with a daughter, Elizabeth, instead of a son. Henry charged his wife with treason and had her beheaded. Henry's third wife bore a son who became Henry's heir as Edward VI (1547-1553).

**Edward VI** Edward was only a boy when his father died and he became king, so the rule was really in the hands of older men of the court. Meantime, Calvinistic doctrines had spread to England and had affected the Church there. Many shrines were despoiled. Images and beautiful stained glass windows were taken out of the churches. Services were held in English instead of Latin and much of the ceremony of the Medieval Church was abolished. Both the church buildings and the services were made more simple and plain. The first *Book of Common Prayer* was prepared in 1549 from the ancient service books used in England. It omitted certain parts and translated it all into English.

**Mary Tudor** Edward died after reigning only six years, leaving the throne to his half sister, Mary (1553-1558). Mary was a staunch Roman Catholic. She was

married to Philip II of Spain who was a great champion of the Catholic faith in Europe. Mary determined to do away with the work of the reformers. She had Parliament accept the pope again. All who did not accept the doctrine of the Medieval Church and the supremacy of the pope were persecuted. Several outstanding bishops were put to death. Mary's measures were so harsh that her name has come down in history as "Bloody Mary." The majority of the English people were unwilling to return to the Roman Catholic Church and upon the death of Mary her work was wiped out.



*Bishop Latimer was burned at the stake for his loyalty to Protestantism. To a fellow martyr he said, "Be of good comfort, Master Ridley, and play the man. We shall this day light such a candle, by God's grace, in England, as I trust shall never be put out."*

**Elizabeth** Now Elizabeth (1558-1603), Henry's second daughter, came to the throne. The religious question was still unsettled. Elizabeth was a forceful woman, determined, like all the Tudors, to have her own way. But she saw the folly of the ruthlessness of her father and of her



sister, Mary. Elizabeth wanted the Church to be broad enough in its teachings to take in the different shades of thought in England, but she was far from tolerant. Everyone was expected to accept the faith of the Church of England. That Church was now midway between the Roman Catholic and Lutheran. The sacraments and the ministry of bishops, priests, and deacons were kept. The services were in the language of the people, however, and many practices of the Medieval Church were done away with. The Pope excommunicated Elizabeth. However, it was easy for her to disregard the Pope, because Mary's excesses had angered the people. The Pope's actions did not force the Church of England back under his control.

During these years there were plots against Elizabeth's life. Letters were found to show that Philip II of Spain was plotting with Mary Stuart, Elizabeth's Catholic cousin and Queen of Scotland, to rid England of Elizabeth. When plans were uncovered for the invasion of England by a Spanish army, Elizabeth's advisers urged her to get rid of Mary. This was enough. Elizabeth signed the death warrant. There have been differences of opinion ever since as to Mary's guilt. She died for a lost cause, however, for the English Church never went back to the pope.

1. List the chief forces at work in England that led to the Reformation.
2. What family ruled in England during the Reformation period?
3. Tell the story of Henry VIII's quarrel with the Pope.
4. What is meant by a "dispensation"?
5. What effects did the dissolution of the monasteries have upon England?
6. How was the Church in England changed

during the reign of Edward VI:

7. Why was Mary Tudor called "Bloody Mary"?
8. What solution of the problem of religion was made during the reign of Elizabeth?
9. What part did Mary Stuart and Philip II play in England in the reign of Elizabeth?

## THE ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH REFORMS ITSELF

**Reforming Popes** The popes of the Renaissance were men of culture and education who admired the new arts and knowledge that the Renaissance had inspired. Their minds were filled with such things and they gave all too little heed to their spiritual duties. In 1534, however, a reformer became pope. Following him were men of character and consecration who set about ridding the Church of the abuses to which many Protestants had objected. Besides the popes themselves, there were many devout Roman Catholics who believed the Church needed reform.

**Council of Trent** To bring about reform, a Church Council was called at Trent in northern Italy in 1545. It was in session at intervals for eighteen years. This council reaffirmed the chief teachings of the Medieval Church: (1) the pope is the head of the Church and the final interpreter of all doctrine. (2) Only the Church has the right to interpret the scriptures. (3) The official Bible of all Catholics is to be a new Latin version known as the Vulgate Version.

The Council not only restated its beliefs, it also made reforms: (1) The sale of Church offices was condemned. (2) Bishops were to live in their dioceses and perform the duties connected with the office. (3)

Schools were to be established where the clergy could be properly trained. (4) Frequently, sermons were to be preached in the language of the people.

**Jesuits** Another important phase of reform was the establishment of several new religious orders. The most important of these was the Jesuit order. It was established by Ignatius Loyola, a Spanish soldier who had been wounded in battle. The order was very strict in many ways and the training for it was long and hard. When their training was completed, the men were sent out on difficult tasks. Some founded schools, which were the best of their day in Europe. Others went into the Protestant countries trying to win the people back to the Roman Catholic Church. Others took long and hard journeys to convert the heathen. Among these brave men was Jacques Marquette, who explored the upper Mississippi Valley and Christianized the Indians there. Another was Francis Xavier, who carried Christianity to Japan.

*This portion of the Reformation Monument at Geneva shows four religious leaders: Calvin, Farel, de Biza, and Knox.*

Ewing Galloway



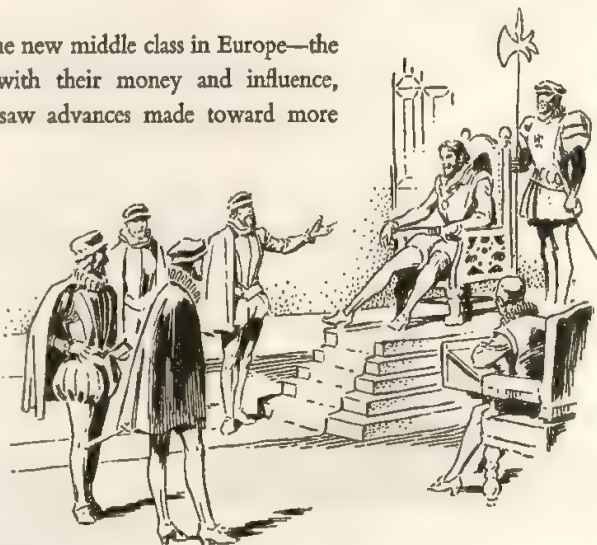
**Later Conflicts** Though the Reformation lasted only through the sixteenth century, its effects continued. The revolt against the authority of the pope inspired those who desired yet broader religious liberty. The Peace of Augsburg in 1555 had not recognized the rights of the Calvinists in Germany. Nor had it completely settled the problems of what should happen to Church lands and the priests when a ruler turned to Lutheranism. These unsettled issues led to the outbreak of a religious war in Germany in 1618. It lasted until 1648 and is known as the Thirty Years' War. In the Peace of Westphalia that ended the war, the Calvinists were guaranteed equal rights with the Catholics and Lutherans. In France the struggle between the Catholics and Huguenots continued throughout the seventeenth century, with the Huguenots losing their liberties when the Edict of Nantes was revoked in 1685. Both sides in these unhappy quarrels were sincere in their beliefs. They felt that they were doing a service to God and righteousness by helping to wipe out other beliefs that seemed to them wrong.

The close of the sixteenth century brought an end to the Renaissance and the Reformation period. It was an era full of life and self-expression. The boundaries of both the physical world in which men lived and the intellectual world in which they thought had been pushed farther and farther back. No longer were limits placed on man's thinking. He was free to experiment in all phases of life. He had begun to explore the earth so that every corner of it would soon be opened to him. These years gave to the modern world great possibilities for man to pursue happiness and self-development. Let us see how he used them.

## 6 • Milestones Toward Democracy

The rising importance of the new middle class in Europe—the merchants and tradesmen—with their money and influence, meant that the Renaissance saw advances made toward more liberty for all the people.

During the Renaissance, as in other periods of man's history, there were steps forward and backward on the road to freedom and liberty.



The complete disappearance of serfdom in England was a big gain. So was the rise of kings, who were less powerful and often less cruel to their subjects than the nobles had been toward their feudal vassals and serfs.

As towns and cities grew, these became important to their governments, because they had wealth to contribute to the kings. Many of these towns, particularly in northern Italy, became self-governing republics.



The Reformation urged freedom of thought. The Edict of Nantes provided some religious liberty for the Huguenots of France.

1. Why was the Council of Trent called?
2. What teachings did the Council affirm?
3. What reforms did the Council of Trent make?
4. Who founded the Jesuits? What work did they do?
5. What wars were fought, at least in part, over religion?
6. What was the Edict of Nantes? When was it repealed?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

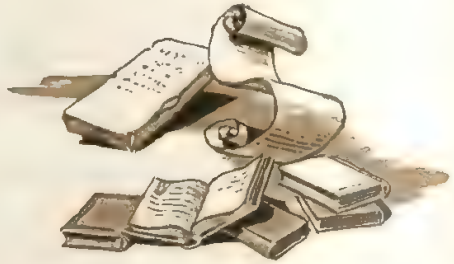
1. There were political and economic as well as religious causes for the Protestant Revolt. Do you think it is common to have political and economic conditions affect social conditions? Can you cite other instances?
2. Why are different languages in a country, like the three used in Switzerland, usually a handicap to the unity of the country?
3. In what respects are the Protestant de-



# 6 • Milestones of Living

Out of the hardships of the Middle Ages there developed gradually over many, many years one of history's most brilliant periods, called the Renaissance.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION



A few men of scientific genius, like Roger Bacon, Copernicus, and Galileo, were searchers for truth in the physical world. These men of the Renaissance worked out theories that benefited their world and upon which later people built to develop many modern inventions.

One of the most far-reaching achievements of man was the printing press.



nominations of your community different from one another? How are they alike?

4. Why was the Peace of Augsburg a bad peace?

5. Are there places in the world today where religious intolerance is as strong as it was in most of Europe in the sixteenth century?

6. When Henry VIII came to the throne the English rejoiced, for he was loved. When he died the people rejoiced to be rid of him.

What do you think caused this change?

7. Why has Elizabeth I come down in history as "good Queen Bess"?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

• Augsburg Confession • Book of Common Prayer • Edict of Nantes • German Diet

## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION



Writers of the Renaissance period helped mankind along the road to a higher level of culture when they began to write in the language that the people themselves spoke. Thus there developed great literature in the Romance languages and in English.



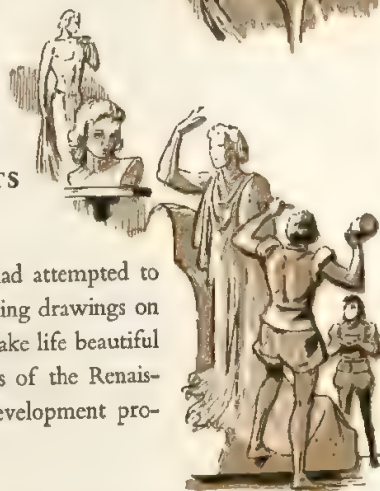
With the invention of the printing press came knowledge, and with knowledge came curiosity to learn more of the world. Daring explorers, backed by men of wealth who supplied the necessary capital, pushed out to find new continents.

Jesuit schools, founded throughout Europe by followers of Loyola, brought educational opportunities to many more people.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

At the very beginning of his history, man had attempted to beautify his surroundings by chipping and painting drawings on the sides of his cave home. The same urge to make life beautiful produced the painters, sculptors, and musicians of the Renaissance. This greatest period in man's artistic development produced enduring masterpieces.



• Huguenots • indulgences • Ninety-five Theses • papal bull • Peace of Augsburg • Peace of Westphalia • penance • Protestant Revolt • Reformation • Vulgate •

2. Do you know your dates?

• 1499 • 1517 • 1598 • 1618-1648 • 1685 •

3. Places to locate on the map:

• Augsburg • Bohemia • Denmark • Japan • Mississippi River • Norway •

Scotland • Sweden • Switzerland • Trent • Westphalia • Wittenberg •

4. Can you identify these persons?

• Anne Boleyn • Catherine of Aragon • Charles V • Edward VI • Henry IV of France • Henry VIII of England • John Calvin • John Huss • Leo X • Ignatius Loyola • Martin Luther • Marquette • Mary Queen of Scots • Mary Tudor • Philip II • John Wycliffe • Ulrich Zwingli • Francis Xavier

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Different members of the class may select one of the following for special reports: Wycliffe, John Huss, Zwingli, John Calvin, and John Knox.

2. Divide into two teams and discuss pro and con one of the following questions:

- a. Was Henry IV of France right in becoming a Catholic if his motive was, as his remark would indicate, to get the throne?
- b. Was Henry VIII justified in divorcing his wife because they had no son to succeed him?
- c. Was the Edict of Nantes wise for the peace of France?

3. Draw a picture in pencil or water color of one of these scenes:

- a. Luther nailing the ninety-five theses to the church door.
- b. Zwingli urging the Swiss to work for the good of their country.
- c. Marquette preaching to the Indians of America.

## III. Time Chart

Divide the class into teams of four or five each. Let each team make a time chart of the principal events and men of the Renaissance period. The teacher may be the judge and the winning team should make copies available to the class or copy its chart on the blackboard.

## GOOD READING

BARNES, MARGARET CAMPBELL, *The Tudor Rose*, Macrae Smith Co., 1953

*The story of Elizabeth, the wife of Henry VII and mother of Henry VIII, in the stirring days of the Wars of the Roses and the early Tudor rule.*

BENNETT, JOHN, *Master Skylark*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc.

*Pictures Shakespeare's England through the eyes of a young boy traveling to London. As a singer in that city he meets Shakespeare. An old book, but still found in many libraries and very fine.*

CHENEY, SHELDON WARREN, *The Theater*, Longmans Green & Co. Inc., 1952

COTTLER, JOSEPH AND JAFFE, HAYM, *Heroes of Civilization*, Little, Brown & Co., 1931

*This book is divided into four sections: Heroes of Exploration, Heroes of Pure Science, Heroes of Invention, and Heroes of Biology and Medicine.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS, *Life in Elizabethan Days*, Harper & Brothers, 1930

*A picture of an English community in the days of Elizabeth I.*

GAER, JOSEPH, *How the Great Religions Began*, The McBride Company, Inc., 1929

GARDNER, HELEN, *Art Through the Ages*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1948

HEWES, A. D., *Spice and the Devil's Cave*, Alfred A. Knopf Inc., 1930

*An exciting story of the coming of the Portuguese to India. Tells of the thrills of Da Gama's expedition.*

IRWIN, MARGARET, *Elizabeth and the Prince of Spain*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1953

*Pictures Philip II of Spain as prince, as husband of Queen Mary, and as lover of Elizabeth.*

KENT, LOUISE ANDREW, *He Went with Magellan*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1943

KENT, LOUISE ANDREW, *He Went with Marco Polo*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1935

KENT, LOUISE ANDREW, *He Went with Vasco Da Gama*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938

*In these three books Mrs. Kent dramatizes the stories of the three great explorers and makes them seem very real.*

KOMROFF, MANUEL, *Marco Polo*, Julian Messner Inc., 1952

*The author tells the story of Polo's journey and pictures life in the court of Kublai Khan.*

LANSING, MARION, *Against All Odds*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1942

*Interesting sketches of the early pioneers of South America.*

LUCAS, MARY SEYMOUR, *Vast Horizons*, The Viking Press, 1943

*Traces the story of discovery from the thirteenth century to 1940 in such a way as to make history come alive.*

NORMAN, CHARLES, *Playmaker of Avon*, The David McKay Co., Inc., 1949

*Describes the life, work, and times of Shakespeare.*



# *Rulers and governments*



*rose and fell*



# The Ups and Downs of KINGS

One of the problems that have been before people ever since groups came to live together is how best to govern themselves. What are the duties of a government, and what is a good government? Those are hard questions to answer, for people of different races and temperaments and historical developments seem to require different systems of government. For that reason no two systems have ever been exactly alike.

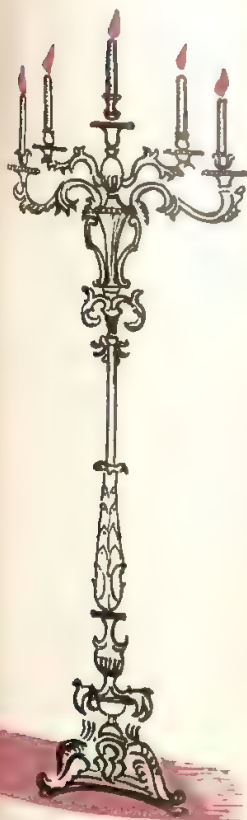
All governments might be classified under three headings: monarchy, oligarchy, and democracy. A monarchy, which means the "rule of one," was the type of government in ancient Egypt, Babylonia, and Persia. One man was the head of the government without limitation and his position was inherited. This was an *absolute monarchy* or *autocracy*. If a king or an emperor inherited his position but did not have complete power, the government was a *limited monarchy*.

A second type of government is that in which a few people rule. This type is called an *oligarchy*, meaning the "rule of a few." Ancient Sparta had such a government.

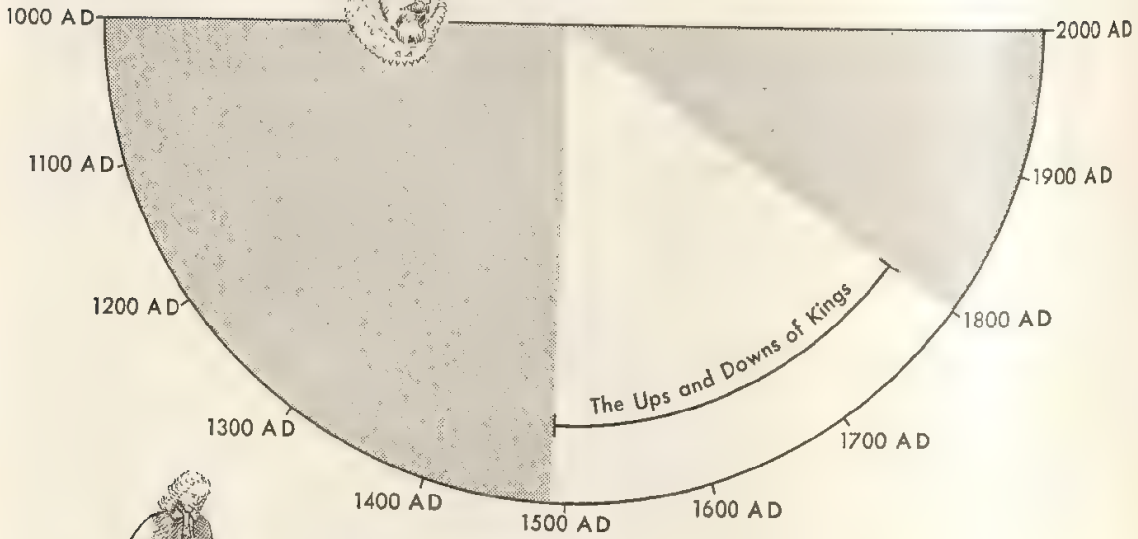
The third type of government is the *democracy*, under which the people govern themselves. Literally translated, democracy means the "rule of the people." There have been two types of democracies in the world: the *pure democracy* and the *representative democracy*. In a *pure democracy* the people meet and make the laws as they did in ancient Athens. There, all of those people who were classified as citizens had the privilege of meeting at certain times on a hill outside the city wall, where they discussed the problems of their city and voted upon them. This type of democracy is found only where the population is small enough for all the citizens to gather in one place and discuss their problems. The other kind of democracy is the *representative* type, in which the citizens vote for men and women who will meet and make the laws for them, as their representatives.

All the governments of Europe in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were monarchies. Strong kings arose during this period of Europe's history and many of them ruled as absolute monarchs.

Here our title is printed in type popular in France during the reigns of Louis XIV and Louis XV.









## 22 *Parliament, Kings, and the English People*

**M**any of the democratic institutions and practices which we in the United States enjoy today had their origins in England where, in the thirteenth century, some important advances were made. The very important Magna Carta was signed, and the English Parliament, divided into the House of Commons and the House of Lords, came into existence.

With the Tudors in power (1485-1603), Parliament fell under the influence of strong rulers who dominated it, not because they used force, but because most of them were strong personalities with a talent for ruling. The Tudor period was one of commercial growth for England and also of her growth in importance among the nations. Englishmen were proud of England, and the Tudors were symbols of England's power and prestige in the world.

### **JAMES I AND THE DIVINE RIGHT OF KINGS**

When Queen Elizabeth, the last of the Tudors, died without a son or daughter to become ruler, the throne passed to the son of Mary Queen of Scots, Elizabeth's cousin. He was James Stuart, who was ruling as

James VI of Scotland and who now became James I (1603-1625) of England as well.

The coming of the Stuart family into power in 1603 brought important changes, and trouble, in English government. In the first place, the Stuarts were "foreigners," Scotchmen, not Englishmen, and James I was a very unpleasant person. Then, too, the Tudors had "managed" Parliament. They had not defied it, but had worked with it. The Stuarts, on the other hand, asserted that they were rulers by "divine right." That is, they believed it was God's will that they rule and God's will that their subjects obey them. Accordingly the king, and not Parliament, was the ruler. This idea of kingship was common on the continent of Europe, but many Englishmen did not believe in it.

**Religious Situation** The situation in England was further complicated by the religious troubles of the time. Many Englishmen believed that the Reformation in England had not gone far enough in ridding England of Catholic teaching. They wanted to "purify" the Church by doing away with such things as statues in the churches, vestments for the clergy, and

much of the ceremony used in the Church services. The most extreme members of this group were called "Puritans." At first they remained in the Anglican Church, but later they broke away from it altogether and became known as Separatists.

There were others in England who were eager to restore more ceremony to the Church services rather than take any away. They were known as the High Church party. They also believed in the divine right of kings. Because James I stood for this theory also, he did not get along well with many members of Parliament who were Puritans.



Culver Service

*The Puritans, with Bible and petition, could not influence King James I nor his haughty High Church party.*

**Economic Situation** James faced a bad economic situation, too. The increase in the amount of silver coming from America forced up prices in England, and it cost the king more to run the government. If he asked for money from Parliament, it would be sure to demand that he give up some of his royal power in return. Moreover, any new taxes would have to be levied upon the merchant and

manufacturing groups who were usually Puritans and opposed to the king. So James and later Stuarts tried to get money in other ways, which the people of England did not approve.

**Colonization** Partly because of the misrule of James, England made progress in colonization and in commerce. In America, Jamestown was established in 1607 and Plymouth in 1620. During James's reign an English settlement was also made in Bermuda.

## CHARLES I, WHO WOULD NOT LEARN

**Petition of Right** Although there was unpleasantness between James I and Parliament, the real trouble did not develop until his son, Charles I (1625-1649), came to the throne. When Parliament refused to grant money to him, Charles attempted to force some of his subjects to give him gifts. When they refused, he had them imprisoned. This brought a reply from Parliament in 1628 in the form of the famous *Petition of Right*. In this document, which the king was forced to sign, he promised (1) not to lodge soldiers in the homes of the people, (2) not to order imprisonments without giving a reason, (3) not to force the people to "make or yield any loan, benevolence, tax, or like charge without common consent by act of Parliament," and (4) to do away with the illegal and unjust Royal Courts. Once more democratic institutions had gained a bit.

**Rule without Parliament** Charles had his troubles with religion, too. He favored the High Church party, but his wife was a French princess who retained



her Roman Catholic faith. The Puritan element in Parliament had grown in numbers, and they accused the king and William Laud, the Archbishop of Canterbury, of favoring the use of ceremony in the church services.

When these financial and religious grievances were brought up in Parliament, the king angrily dissolved it, and for eleven years Charles I ruled without calling a Parliament.

**Trouble Ahead** While there was outward calm during those eleven years, trouble was brewing under the surface. At last war broke out in Scotland because the Archbishop of Canterbury tried to force the Presbyterian Scotch to accept the Anglican *Book of Common Prayer*. In order to get the money to carry on the war, Charles was forced to call Parliament together. Instead of granting the money Charles asked for, Parliament took advantage of the occasion to imprison and execute two of the king's chief advisers, one of whom was William Laud, the Archbishop. Parliament also passed new measures to limit the power of the king. When Charles and a group of his supporters went to the House of Commons to arrest five of the leaders for putting through such measures, they found that the five members had fled.

**Cavaliers and Roundheads** This attempt to arrest the leaders of Parliament still further angered the enemies of the king. If the king could arrest the members of Parliament, they reasoned, then the king, not Parliament, would be the master of England. This brought the discontent out into the open and civil war broke out. In the conflict, the king was supported by the members of the High Church party and

most of the nobles. They formed the political party known as the Cavaliers. Most of the people working in commercial and trading centers of the country were Puritans who favored Parliament. They were called Roundheads because they cut their hair short.

**Civil War** There were really two main issues for which the civil war was being fought: (1) Should the king or Parliament rule England? (2) Should the beliefs of the High Church party or those of the Puritans be the religion of England? The war was long and bitter, lasting from 1642 to 1649. In the end the Roundheads, who had found an able leader in Oliver Cromwell, defeated Charles.

Having won their victory, the Puritans fell to quarreling among themselves and divided into Presbyterians and Independents. When Cromwell called Parliament to determine what to do with the King, Independents stationed soldiers at the door and would not allow any of the King's sympathizers or any Presbyterians in Parliament to enter the House of Commons. Of the four hundred and ninety elected members of Parliament, only sixty were present. Charles had no chance against his avowed enemies in this so-called "Rump Parliament," and was beheaded in 1649.

1. Review the development of the English Parliament up to the death of Queen Elizabeth.
2. Why did the Stuarts have more trouble with Parliament than the Tudors?
3. Who were the Puritans? What were their theories regarding religion? the rulers of England?
4. What was the attitude of the High Church party regarding religion? government?



Historical Pictures Service

*Cromwell, exasperated with the Rump Parliament, at last, in 1653, turned the members out. Perhaps to justify his action he cried, "Your hour is come; the Lord hath done with you!"*

5. How did the economic situation in England add to the troubles of James I?
6. What colonies were founded during the reign of James I?
7. Under what circumstances was the Petition of Right passed? Give date and chief provisions.
8. List the grievances against Charles I.
9. Explain how the Civil War came about in England.
10. What parties took part in the Civil War? For what did each stand?
11. What was the effect of the Civil War on the king and the people of England?

was practically a dictator of his country.

In foreign affairs Cromwell was very successful. The English navy was built into a fine fighting force, which helped to raise the prestige of England abroad to the highest point it had yet reached. Cromwell subdued Ireland and Scotland when they rebelled against him. He defeated the Dutch in battle and commanded the respect of Louis XIV, the powerful king of France. Despite these successes abroad, Cromwell knew that he had failed; for it was evident that the majority of the English people did not want to follow the Puritan religion and were weary of rule by an army.

## OLIVER CROMWELL, AN ABLE AUTOCRAT

The people of England had not gained control of the government by the death of Charles I and Oliver Cromwell's rise to power. Although the English government under Cromwell was called a republic, or Commonwealth, it was one in name only. Like Charles I, Cromwell ignored the Parliament when it did not agree with him. He ruled with the backing of the army and

## THE STUARTS IN POWER AGAIN

**Charles II** Shortly after the death of Oliver Cromwell, the Commonwealth government collapsed. Charles II (1660–1685), son of Charles I, became king. Immediately his government began to reverse the policies of the commonwealth. Laws were passed to drive all Puritans out of public office and to stamp out the Puritan religion.





Bettmann Archive

*William of Orange and his wife, Mary, were cousins and members of the Stuart family. When William, with an army of 15,000 men, landed in England, he was welcomed at the pier by respectful Englishmen.*

During the reign of Charles II, Parliament established one of the greatest safeguards to human liberty ever conceived by man. This was the *Habeas Corpus Act* of 1679. It provided that a person who had been arrested must be brought to court and given the reason for which he was being held in jail. This act prevented the king from holding political prisoners for long periods without placing a charge against them, as had often been done before. The *Habeas Corpus* law has come down to us from seventeenth-century England and continues to guarantee our personal liberties. No one can be held in jail without stated and proper cause, thanks to this old English statute.

**James II and the Glorious Revolution** James II (1685–1688), who had succeeded his brother Charles II to the throne, was not so careful as Charles had been. He believed that England should be an absolute monarchy, and he sought to make it so. Besides, he was a Roman Catholic and married, as his second wife, a

Catholic princess. Their son, who was brought up in their faith, was to succeed him to the throne instead of his Protestant daughter, Mary, who was the child of his first wife. Mary had married the King of Holland, William of Orange. The people of England might have endured James with the hope that Mary would succeed him, but after his son was born they decided to put an end to his reign. Some of the leading citizens sent word to William of Orange and Mary to come to England from Holland and take the throne. When William landed on the shores of England with an army and marched to London, James's army melted away. Without a single battle James fled to France, and William (1689–1702) and his wife Mary (1689–1694) became joint rulers of England. This event of 1688 is known as the Glorious Revolution.

**More Guarantees of Human Rights** Before the new rulers were crowned, Parliament drew up the *Bill of Rights*, and the new sovereigns signed it



in 1689. This very important document provided that (1) the king could not keep a standing army without the consent of Parliament; (2) frequent meetings of Parliament must be held; (3) the people had the right to petition the king; (4) no Roman Catholic could ever be king of England; and (5) the Parliament rather than the king could levy taxes.

Religious freedom also was advanced by the *Toleration Act*, passed in 1689, which gave the Puritans the right to have their own churches.

**John Locke** An important book appeared as a result of the Glorious Revolution. John Locke (1632–1704), an English political philosopher, wrote a book to justify the overthrow of James II in the bloodless Glorious Revolution. Locke explained that governments should exist through the consent of the governed, and that people possess certain natural rights: life, liberty, and property. Governments exist to protect those rights; and as long as governments do that, men should obey them. Locke also advocated more widespread education and complete religious toleration. Mild as they seem to us today, Locke's political ideas were considered very radical three hundred years ago.

**Queen Anne** Under Queen Anne (1702–1714), Queen Mary's sister, who succeeded William and Mary, two important changes were made in English government. Since the days of James I, England and Scotland had been ruled by the same king, but now they became one nation, the United Kingdom of Great Britain. The capital was London, and representatives from both Scotland and England met in Parliament in that city. The

second change limited the sovereign's power further. Queen Anne was the last ruler to veto an act of Parliament. Though no law was passed to that effect, from then on, no ruler exercised that power.

1. Who became ruler of England after the death of Charles I?
2. What important successes did this new ruler have in foreign policy?
3. Despite those successes, why was he a failure?
4. What was the Commonwealth?
5. What measures did the government of Charles II take regarding the Puritans in England?
6. What was the *Toleration Act*? the *Habeas Corpus Act*?
7. Why was James II deposed?
8. What was the Glorious Revolution?
9. Under what circumstances was the *Bill of Rights* passed?
10. What did John Locke contribute to man's advancement?
11. For what two important changes in the government was the reign of Queen Anne known?

## NEW POLITICAL INSTITUTIONS DEVELOP

**Cabinet System** William of Orange knew little about the government and had little interest in it. Therefore, a group of ministers from Parliament took over much of the business of government. As time passed it became the custom for the members of this group, or cabinet, to come from the party that had the majority in the House of Commons. They acted as a unit and kept office or lost it according to whether they kept or lost the favor of the majority in Parliament.

### Prime Ministership

When Anne died without heirs, her German cousin, George (1714-1727), a prince of Hanover in Germany, came to the throne. Because he could speak no English, he did not attend cabinet meetings. Out of this situation there developed the office of prime minister to act as head of the cabinet instead of the king. Like the cabinet, this office was not planned but grew out of a situation, and politicians of that time did not realize that the prime ministership would some day be the chief office in the English government.



Acme

*The British people today cherish the hard-won right to speak freely and openly against their government.*

### Democratic Aspects of the British Government

By the middle of the eighteenth century, the people of England had advanced rather far in their struggle for the right to govern themselves. The king's power, as we have seen, was limited by what we might call the British "constitution." Ever since the Magna Carta, in 1215, various laws had been passed limiting the king's authority. There had also grown up a body of customs and usages regarding government that were never written down. This body of written and unwritten law makes up the English "constitution." By the middle of the eighteenth century it had limited the king's power in the following ways: (1) He could not levy taxes without the consent of Parliament. (2) He could not issue laws. (3) He could not veto laws passed by Parliament. (4) He could not maintain a standing army without Parliament's consent. (5) He no longer had power over the courts of the land. (6) He could not deny people the right to a trial by jury. (7) He could not remove judges because he did not like their decisions. (8) No one could be thrown into jail without being given the reason and having a

fair trial. (9) Freedom of newspapers to discuss the policies of the government was guaranteed. (10) There were two political parties. Because of these restrictions on the king's power, England had come to be a *limited* monarchy and the power to rule was with Parliament.

There were other signs in Great Britain that democracy was on the march. The House of Commons was an elected body. The government no longer imprisoned people or killed them for attending the church of their choice. Finally, the people had the right to criticize their government.

### Undemocratic Aspects of the British Government

Despite these conditions, England was still far from being democratic. People had to be large landowners to be able to vote or to hold office. The members of the Anglican Church monopolized the public offices. Many towns that had been given representation generations ago continued to send members to the House of Commons even though their populations had declined to a very small number. On the other hand, large towns had developed that had no rep-

resentation. Membership in the House of Lords was hereditary, rather than by election, and the Lords had the power to veto any legislation passed by the House of Commons. An oral system of voting permitted widespread bribery because employers and other influential people could know how people voted. By the use of bribery one party, the Whig, had been able to stay in power for a long time. Moreover, voting periods in some places lasted as long as two weeks so that some men holding lands in different parts of the country could have time to travel from one section to another and vote several times. More than a hundred offences were punishable by death. England still needed many reforms in government.

1. Under what circumstances did the Hanover family come to the British throne?
2. How did the cabinet system start in England? the prime ministership?
3. List the democratic and the undemocratic factors in the English government in the middle of the eighteenth century.

### THE MIDDLE CLASS ENGLISH GOVERNMENT AND ECONOMIC LIFE

**Mercantilism** Mercantilism required a "favorable balance of trade," that is, trade in which a nation exported, or sold, more than it imported, or bought. To accomplish that, a country had to have colonies that would supply to the "mother" country raw materials which could be made into finished goods. Then the colonies were expected to buy back these manufactured goods. At home, industries had to be given grants of money and protected by tariffs high enough to keep out foreign

goods. The trade of the colonies with other countries was strictly regulated, too, in the interest of the mother country.

After the Glorious Revolution the middle class merchants and businessmen were elected to the House of Commons in increasing numbers. They became the strongest influence in Parliament. Since it was to their advantage, they favored the mercantile system and allied themselves with the kings in supporting it. Laws were passed by Parliament covering commerce and manufacturing which were in the interests of the British business men. The mercantile theory thus was the policy of both the king and Parliament.

**Adam Smith** Before the eighteenth century was three quarters over, many were beginning to doubt the wisdom of using the mercantile system because they believed it actually reduced the amount of trade. In fact, many statesmen and business men were convinced that England must get rid of her mercantile policy. In 1776, Adam Smith, a professor at the University of Glasgow, attacked the policy in a famous book entitled *An Inquiry into the Nature and Causes of the Wealth of Nations*. The book aroused much discussion in England and other European countries. Smith opposed restrictions on colonial trade. Protective tariffs should be repealed, he wrote, and everyone would prosper if the government adopted a *laissez-faire* policy of keeping its hands off business.

1. Why did the middle class support the kings following the Glorious Revolution?
2. What theories did the mercantilists have regarding trade? colonies?
3. Why and how did Adam Smith attack mercantilism?





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*Gulliver's Travels* describes the small people of Lilliput. From that story we get our word "Lilliputian."

## ARTS, SCIENCE, RELIGION

Throughout most of the world's history there have been people who have used their talent for writing to enrich and advance man's culture. During this period of political revolution and economic change, Englishmen produced literature so great that it became a part of our own cultural heritage. Under the Commonwealth the best writers were influenced by the Puritan spirit. Of these, John Milton (1608-1674) was perhaps the greatest. He wrote numerous pamphlets, powerful in their defense of the Puritan struggle for democratic government and freedom of worship. His *Paradise Lost* is an epic poem by means of which he tried to persuade his generation to return to the ways of God. John Bunyan (1628-1688) was a Baptist preacher. While in jail for preaching his beliefs, he wrote *The Pilgrim's Progress*, one of the greatest works of its kind in all literature. It describes the difficulties a Christian has as he climbs toward the Heavenly City.

With the restoration of the monarchy in 1660, England again turned to her "merrie" mood. Englishmen were glad to be rid of the drab Puritan regime. During the reign

of Queen Anne, England enjoyed the writings of some of the most brilliant men in all English history. Daniel Defoe (1660-1731) was famous for his immortal book of adventure, *Robinson Crusoe*. Jonathan Swift (1667-1745) wrote *Gulliver's Travels* to make fun of many of the shortcomings in England and to criticize the social evils of his time. The witty Alexander Pope (1688-1744) also wrote of the weaknesses of the high society of Queen Anne's day. The latter part of the eighteenth century produced Samuel Johnson who wrote the first organized dictionary of the English language. We know about him chiefly through James Boswell, author of the *Life of Samuel Johnson*, the famous biography.

**Painting** Eighteenth-century English painters were among the best of the time. Sir Joshua Reynolds, Thomas Gainsborough, and George Romney were painters of portraits of great beauty.

*Reynolds, and other painters of his day, often placed their figures against a landscape background, as in this Two Children.*

Bettmann Archive



**Education** The educational opportunities offered its people are always important in forming a truly democratic country. Opportunities for children to go to school increased during the eighteenth century, but they were still very limited. The Anglican Church assumed responsibility for the education of its youth by having schools in the parishes, taught by the clergy. Then there were the "public schools" of England, which were really private schools for the sons of the wealthy class only. A few wealthy persons established charity schools where some poor children were taught reading, writing, arithmetic, manners, and religion, and also were boarded and clothed. But most English children could not go to school.

In 1780 Robert Raikes started, in Sooty Alley, Gloucester, the first of his famous Sunday Schools. The neglected children who worked in factories and mines were growing up in ignorance and vice. These Sunday Schools were intended to teach such children to read, write, and spell, as well as to give them the fundamentals of religion. The movement grew, spreading to all parts of Great Britain and even to the American colonies. Sunday Schools helped to some extent, but the English government as yet took no responsibility for the education of the children of the country.

**Science** An awakening to the wonders of the world had taken place during the Renaissance, and such scholars as Francis Bacon had done much to popularize science. Academies and universities began giving courses in science, and scientific societies were formed. The Royal Society in Great Britain was one of the most noted.

One of the outstanding members of the Royal Society in London was Sir Isaac



*Newton, called by scientists "the greatest genius who ever lived," experimenting with the spectrum.*

Newton (1642-1727). He stated the law of gravitation, after discovering that the same force of gravity that makes the apple fall to the ground holds the moon in its orbit around the earth. This is one of the most important physical laws ever discovered. Newton also studied the breaking up of light rays into six different colors, known as the spectrum.

During this remarkable period in England there were discoveries in the field of medical science, too. William Harvey found out how the blood circulates through the human body.

So widespread was the interest in science that it became fashionable for wealthy men and nobles to set up their own observatories and laboratories. Encyclopedias were written containing the scientific knowledge of the time. The world had awakened to the significance of science and was preparing the way for the remarkable advances to be made in our own day.



**Religion** Some of the Puritan Separatists who left the Church of England came to America, where they became known as Pilgrims. There was another dissatisfied group in England whose members were called Friends, or Quakers. Their leader was George Fox. Because Fox believed that religion was entirely a matter of personal relationship with God, he taught that no clergy were needed. His followers, under his direction, lived and dressed very simply. They were opposed to going to war for any reason, and they also condemned slavery. Most of the Quakers came from the lower classes, but a few were nobles. William Penn, who founded Pennsylvania, was an aristocrat who gave up his title to follow the Quaker teachings.

Another outstanding religious leader whose influence is very much alive in our world today was John Wesley, a priest of the Anglican Church but very critical of it. For a time he was a missionary in America. After returning to England he went about the country, traveling about five thousand miles every year, preaching to the common people. Because of the methodical routine of their lives, Wesley's followers were called Methodists. After Wesley's death, his followers broke away from the Anglican Church and set up their own churches.

In spite of all the discontent in politics, religion, and social conditions in England, and revolts by the people, widespread reform did not come in the eighteenth century. When the French Revolution broke out in 1789, the leaders in England who favored reform became fearful lest a like fate should befall their country if any more power were given to the lower classes. Then, too, at this time England became involved in the wars with Napoleon, and, in a struggle for her life, had no time for reform.

1. What effect did the Puritan rule of Cromwell have upon England? What effect did the Restoration have?
2. For what writings were John Milton and John Bunyan famous? What was the purpose of their works?
3. Name two outstanding English painters of the time.
4. What opportunities for education were available in England?
5. What were the contributions to mankind of Sir Isaac Newton and William Harvey?
6. Describe the movements headed by George Fox and John Wesley.
7. Why was reform postponed in Great Britain during the eighteenth century?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What rights that you enjoy today had their origin in Great Britain under the Stuarts?
2. Why were the British people, who beheaded one of the Stuarts in 1649, so happy to welcome his son as king in 1660?
3. Why were most of the trades people and merchants opposed to the "divine right" theory, while the nobles and country folk were willing to accept it?
4. In the Anglican Church calendar there is a day set aside in memory of Charles I. Why?

*The Quakers were so named because George Fox told a magistrate to "tremble at the word of the Lord."*





5. Why have all British rulers since Queen Anne signed bills even when they have not approved of them?

6. It has been said that the British government did not come about by planning, but "just grew." Can you give evidence to prove this?

7. Why did the middle-class businessmen uphold the mercantile theory? Was it wise?

8. How does the American President's cabinet differ from the British cabinet?

9. Why is popular education necessary in a democracy?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• Bill of Rights • cabinet • Cavaliers • charity schools • "divine right of kings" • English Bill of Rights • favorable balance of trade • Glorious Revolution • Habeas Corpus Act • High Church Party • laissez faire • mercantilism • Methodists • Petition of Right • prime minister • public schools • Puritans • Quakers • Roundheads • Royal Society • Rump Parliament • Sunday Schools • Toleration Act • veto power •

#### 2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1485-1603 • 1628 • 1636 • 1642-1649 • 1647 • 1660 • 1688 • 1689 • 1776 •

#### 3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Geneva • Glasgow • Holland • Ireland • Los Angeles • Massachusetts • Pennsylvania •

#### 4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Francis Bacon • James Boswell • John Bunyan • John Calvin • Charles I • Charles II • Oliver Cromwell • Daniel Defoe • George Fox • George I • Thomas Gainsborough • William Harvey • James I • James II • William Laud • John Locke • Queen Mary • John Milton • Sir Isaac

Newton • William Penn • Alexander Pope • Queen Anne • Robert Raikes • Sir Joshua Reynolds • Adam Smith • Jonathan Swift • John Wesley •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. List briefly in parallel columns on the blackboard the provisions of the English Bill of Rights and the Bill of Rights of the United States (the first ten Amendments to our Constitution). Discuss in class the provisions that are similar in the two.

2. Read the grievances against King George III as stated in the American Declaration of Independence. Make a list of any grievances mentioned there that are like those that the English people had against the Stuarts.

3. List the services that you expect from your government today. Check those that an Englishman could have expected from his government in the days of Charles I.

4. One pupil may find out for the class how the King James Version of the Bible came to be written and report to the class.

5. Using the card catalogue in the library make a bibliography of the works listed under the name of one of the writers or painters mentioned in this chapter. Bring your bibliographies to class and compare them. With the approval of the teacher, select one book from the list to read for a report to the class.

6. One pupil may find out for the class what the laws of your state are concerning the establishment of public schools.

## III. A Cartoon

Draw a cartoon to illustrate one of the dissenting movements in England during this period.

## IV. Picture Study

In the picture on page 266 find Cromwell. What is he doing?



## Two Ruling Families Keep Europe at War

Throughout the Middle Ages the small German states were part of the curious political unit known as the Holy Roman Empire. Of this Holy Roman Empire one witty person remarked quite correctly that it was neither holy, nor Roman, nor an empire. It had no claim to holiness for it was constantly warring with popes and other rulers. It was not Roman because the emperors and nearly all the inhabitants were German. Nor could it be considered an empire in the true sense because the emperor had very little authority over any of the states. He was elected to his position by the rulers of only seven of the three hundred or more states that made up the empire. These electors tried to select a man who would not interfere with their power. The electors were autocratic rulers. Gradually the emperorship came to be more or less hereditary. While the emperor had influence and a proud title, he had no real power.

a series of fortunate marriages, the Hapsburg family had added to their vast estates and had built up a powerful state, with Vienna as the capital. Then, in the thirteenth century, the Hapsburg ruler of Austria was chosen Holy Roman Emperor. The Hapsburgs were to be rulers of some part of Europe until 1918, when World War I drove them from their last kingdom, Austria-Hungary.

*In a day when many rulers had low standards of morality, Maria Theresa was a devoted wife and mother.*

Historical Pictures Service

### THE HAPSBURGS

The little duchy of Austria came under the rule of a very old and wealthy family, the Hapsburgs, named for a castle in which they had lived in the thirteenth century. By





Courtesy New York Historical Society

*In three centuries the tiny New Amsterdam grew to be the largest city in the world, New York.*

For many, many years the Hapsburgs, with their rivals, the Hohenzollerns (hō' ěn tsōl' ěrn) of Prussia, a large kingdom of Germany, kept Europe in a state of war. We shall pass over briefly that troubled period that actually extended over two hundred years.

#### THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE BECOMES DIVIDED

**Charles V** In the year 1519 Charles V (1519-1556) was elected emperor. Besides the title of emperor, Charles held a long list of other titles which gave him prestige and power. He was king of Spain and her possessions in Europe and of her vast American empire. Austria and her possessions were also his.

Charles had not only these vast realms to rule but some vexing problems to solve as well. He was troubled by the Protestant Reformation in the Empire and in the Low Countries and by wars with rival rulers. At last, worn and ill, Charles V abdicated his throne and divided his realm. His Spanish possessions were given to his son, Philip II (1556-1598), while the Austrian possessions went to his brother, Ferdinand. It was the ruler of the Austrian branch who continued to have the title of emperor.

#### THE SPANISH HAPSBURGS LOSE PRESTIGE UNDER PHILIP II

**Loss of Holland** Philip's rule in Spain was far from successful. Like Charles V, Philip II was a staunch Catholic, but he was even more zealous than his father had been in his efforts to wipe out Protestantism. Despite the fact that thousands of his subjects in Holland were Calvinists, Philip revived the Inquisition against the Protestants. His harsh measures stirred up a successful revolt, led by William of Orange, and Philip lost Holland. This was a hard blow to Spain, for some of the richest cities of Europe were in Holland.

**Netherlands** The Netherlands were thus divided. Belgium remained under Spanish rule for the next two centuries, while the northern part, Holland, remained independent under the House of Orange. The Dutch privateers, which were privately owned ships fighting for their country, preyed upon Spanish and Portuguese ships on the high seas. Soon Holland built its own navy and merchant marine. Amsterdam became one of the chief commercial cities of the world.

Early in the seventeenth century the Dutch East India Company was formed.



It drove the Portuguese out of the rich East Indies and gained control of the islands as well as of the sea routes to them. Other Hollanders came to America, where they founded New Amsterdam and for a short time were rivals of the British in colonization in the New World. They soon lost their colony in North America to the British, however, and the Dutch were forced to withdraw from the race for colonies in America. Still Holland remained one of the richest countries of Europe and played an important part in the international affairs of Western Europe.

**Colonial Policy** Philip was unwise in his colonial policy, too. High taxes cut down trade, and restrictions upon the colonists in America lost their loyalty.

Barbarous treatment of the Indians by the Spanish settlers caused the natives to lose their spirit and to grow lazy. So the great wealth that Spain might have gathered from her colonies was lost to her.

**Relations with England** The relations between Spain and England during the reign of Philip II were unhappy. After the death of his wife, Mary Tudor, Philip tried to retain a measure of control over England in order to keep the country in the Roman Catholic faith. He offered to marry Queen Elizabeth, but she was too wise to make such a marriage. Then Philip plotted against her in several ways. When all his plots failed, Philip turned to force, sending the Invincible Armada against England in 1588, which ended in disaster.



The failure of Philip II caused a sharp decline in the power of Spain. For about a century she had been the leading state of Europe. Now she was no longer.

### THE AUSTRIAN HAPSBURGS LOSE PRESTIGE DURING THE THIRTY YEARS' WAR

**Beginning of the Thirty Years' War** The Peace of Augsburg had divided the Holy Roman Empire into Protestant and Catholic states. From then on there was strife between the two groups of states over religion. Many of the Protestant states did not want to remain under the emperor. One of these was Bohemia (bō-hē'mě ä). In 1618 the Thirty Years' War (1618-1648) broke out in Bohemia. It was both a war over religion and a revolt against the overlordship of the Emperor.

The Bohemians, or Czechs (chěx), threw three of the emperor's ministers out of the window into a ditch sixty feet below. Then they elected a Protestant to the throne and defied the emperor to attempt to reconquer them. The emperor accepted the challenge

*Gustavus Adolphus was a man of many accomplishments—a skilled warrior, a leader of people, highly educated (he could speak seven languages), and interested in the music and literature of his day.*

and was soon able to put the new king to flight and crush the Bohemians. From this beginning the war spread. Political issues in other states were added to the religious question, and before the war was over most of Western Europe had become involved for one reason or another.

**Gustavus Adolphus** One of the most important phases of the war was the Swedish. The Emperor had good but entirely ruthless generals who won victories and permitted their troops to loot and devastate the land they overran. The Protestants looked for a general who could uphold their cause. They soon found one in Gustavus Adolphus (gūs tā'vūs ä döl'fūs) (1594-1632) who was a staunch Protestant and was also ambitious to extend Sweden's territory. He had already taken Finland, Estonia, and Livonia. Now he was eager to get the land along the southern shores of the Baltic Sea. Adolphus was a brilliant man, an able statesman, and an excellent soldier and general. Many Protestant princes of the Empire allied themselves with him. Richelieu (rěsh'ě lō), the chief minister of France,

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although he was a cardinal in the Roman Catholic Church, agreed to support Adolphus with arms and money. He hoped that by doing so he would weaken the Hapsburgs and gain territory for France.

Adolphus conducted a brilliant campaign. His army was small but well-disciplined, in contrast to the Emperor's armies. Adolphus won victories on every hand. In an important battle in 1632 the Protestants were victorious under his leadership, but their brilliant leader was killed. Shortly thereafter the Hapsburg Emperor of the Holy Roman Empire lost his best general, too.

**Treaty of Westphalia** When Richelieu saw a chance for France to gain territory and weaken the Hapsburgs, he brought France actively into the war. It was evident, however, that both sides were tired of the conflict. Neither the Emperor nor his enemies could be driven out of the German states. Consequently fighting came to an end in 1648.

The Thirty Years' War was one of the most devastating in history. The German states were reduced to poverty and desolation. The population was greatly decreased and the level of education and general culture much reduced. The war that had started as a religious conflict ended in a struggle of princes and nations for power.

The Treaty of Westphalia (wĕst fā'li à) was signed in 1648. This was the first of a series of treaties made in modern Europe that have changed the political map of that continent. The Hapsburgs had to acknowledge the independence of Switzerland and of Holland, although those countries had in fact long been independent of the Hapsburgs. The treaty gave some land along the Baltic Sea to Sweden; and France got some territory bringing her nearer to her



Historical Pictures Service

*Gustavus Adolphus' army was the first to carry supplies instead of depending on foraging and theft.*

natural boundaries. Since the states of the Holy Roman Empire were made practically independent, the emperor's power was greatly reduced. As archduke of Austria the Hapsburg ruler had power, although the rising state of Prussia under another family, the Hohenzollerns, became a challenge to him even there.

**Maria Theresa** About a century later, Maria Theresa (tĕr ĕ'sā) (1740–1780) inherited the Austrian throne from her father. He had doubted that a woman could hold the throne of Austria against neighboring monarchs. For that reason he had the ruling families of Europe sign a document upholding her right to rule. This agreement was called the *Pragmatic Sanction*. The Hapsburg lands left to Maria Theresa were disorganized, her army was poor, and her treasury lacked money. Furthermore, her



greedy neighbors were ready to forget their pledge and were preparing to attack.

1. How did the Holy Roman emperors get their positions?
2. Describe the rise of the power of the Hapsburg family.
3. What realms did Charles V rule in Europe? in the New World?
4. What grave problems did Charles V face besides those of his empire?
5. Why did Charles V resign and who inherited his realms?
6. What evils befell Spain during the reign of Philip II? Why?
7. Show how Holland gained a place of prominence in European affairs.
8. How did the Thirty Years' War start?
9. Tell the part played by Adolphus in the Thirty Years' War.
10. What was the name and date of the treaty that ended the war? State its chief provisions.
11. How did the Thirty Years' War affect the German states? the Hapsburg rulers? the Hohenzollern rulers?
12. What was the *Pragmatic Sanction*?

## RIVALRY BETWEEN HOHENZOLLERNS AND HAPSBURGS LEADS TO A BIGGER WAR

### Growth of Hohenzollern Power

Starting from an unimportant position among the German states, Prussia had gradually risen to great power. This was chiefly the result of the efforts of a succession of rulers of the Hohenzollern family. Each ruler of that family prided himself upon adding some piece of territory to his realms. In the midst of the 'Thirty Years' War, Frederick William, the Great Elector

(1640-1688), became ruler. He not only added territory to his possessions, but he succeeded in unifying the government of his scattered realms into a strong monarchy in which his power was absolute. He encouraged the immigration of the Huguenots who were at that time being persecuted and driven out of France by Louis XIV, and he established religious toleration. He encouraged agriculture and industry. He built up an army larger than he needed for defense.

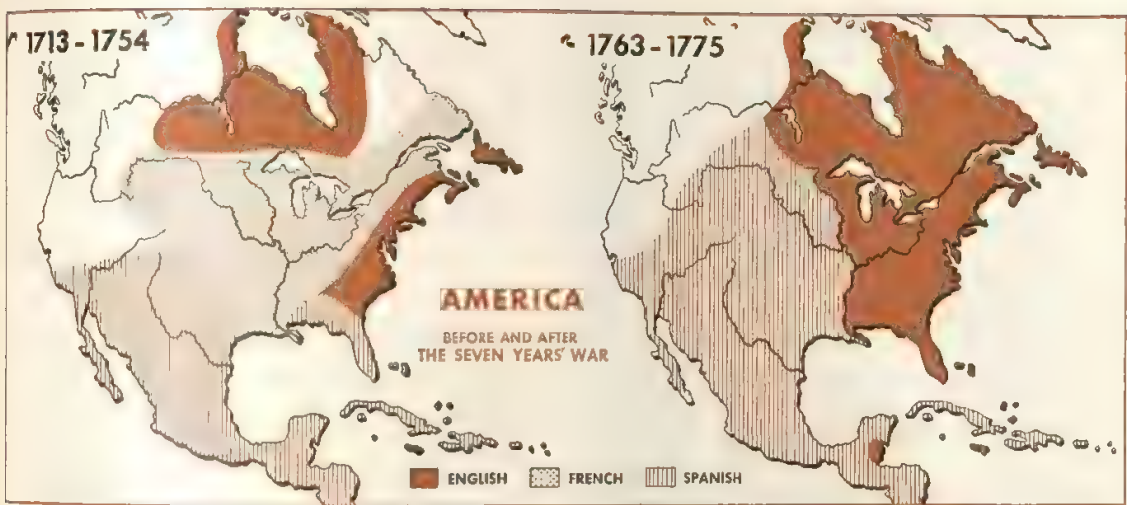
**Frederick II** Frederick II, called the "Great," came to the Prussian throne in the same year that Maria Theresa became the queen of Austria. A struggle developed between them as rulers of the two leading German states. Although Frederick had signed the *Pragmatic Sanction* to respect the dominions of Maria Theresa, he attacked Austria and took Silesia, the fertile valley of the Oder River, which had a population as large as that of Prussia. This started the war known as the War of the Austrian Succession, in 1740.

### War of the Austrian Succession

The seizure of Silesia was the signal for the other powers to take sides, notably England and France. The war became widespread, extending even to America, where clashes took place between British and French troops over their colonies. When the war ended in 1748, European countries returned to their prewar position. However, Prussia kept Silesia. It was a needless war that accomplished nothing.

### Seven Years' War in Europe

It was an uneasy peace that followed. Maria Theresa knew that Frederick was ambitious and would probably commit



*For several years, the small, scattered French posts in America gave England little concern. But when the French moved into the Ohio valley, the English feared their "running all along by the back" of the colonies. What effects of the Seven Years' War do we see on our continent today?*

further aggression, so she planned for such an event. Not trusting England, Maria turned to Austria's old enemy, France, for help. The English thereupon switched to the defense of Frederick of Prussia. Before the summer of 1756 had passed, Europe was embroiled in another war. The British came to the support of their Prussian ally with some men and much money, but they were more interested in breaking the power of the French empire in America and India. Britain was not greatly concerned about saving Silesia for Prussia. Nor was France eager to restore Silesia to Austria. Much fighting took place in Europe, with Frederick displaying great generalship and winning some striking victories against superior numbers. This war lasted for seven years and is known as the Seven Years' War.

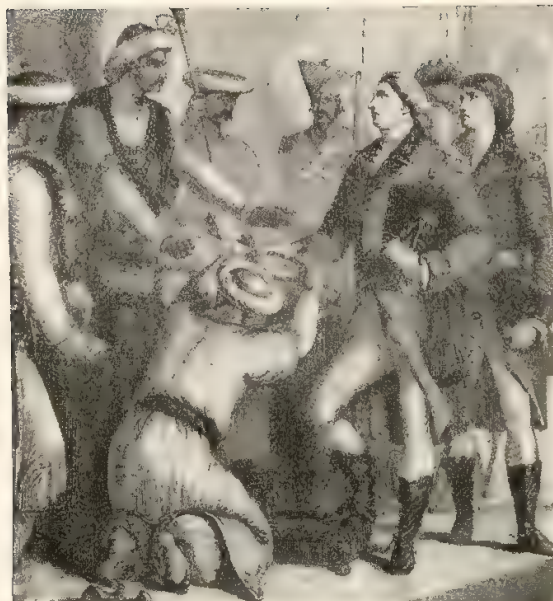
### Seven Years' War in America

In America the fighting had started in 1754 when the French occupied lands in the Ohio Valley claimed by the English. This phase of the Seven Years' War was known as the French and Indian War. Under the

leadership of young James Wolfe, the British forces defeated the Marquis de Montcalm and his French defenders at Quebec in 1760. Both generals lost their lives in that battle. Great Britain received Canada and all of the French lands east of the Mississippi River except two small islands in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Spain entered the war late and was given the French land west of the Mississippi.

### Seven Years' War in India

In India, a young clerk of the British East India Company, Robert Clive (kliv), led the British in their fight against the French. The French had established themselves firmly in southern India around the port of Pondicherry (pôn dē shā rē'). They tried to get princes in power who favored France. The British backed rival candidates to the princely offices. Both countries used native troops, called sepoys (sē'pois), to fight for them. Clive, through his bribery of the natives and a masterly military stroke, was able to put his candidate into office, thereby gaining superiority in the south. In the



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Clive's daring attracted native rulers. Here the Great Mogul is giving him dominion over rich lands of India.

north, around Calcutta, Clive was faced not only by the French but by a young Hindu ruler who opposed the British. When the Hindu ruler placed one hundred forty-six British captives in a small jail without ventilation, all but twenty-three of them died. This episode at the "Black Hole" of Calcutta stirred the British in India. Under the leadership of Clive the prince was defeated and deposed. Clive went on from there and defeated the French. Fighting continued, but France had at last to recognize British supremacy in India.

The Treaty of Paris, signed in 1763, provided for a general settlement that included recognition of Prussia's claim to Silesia. The Hapsburgs of Austria were humiliated and Prussia came to be recognized as one of the strong powers of Europe. France retained Pondicherry and some small posts in India. Although the war had started over Austria's desire to recover Silesia and her fear of Prussia, the most important outcome directly affected Britain and France. As a

result of the fighting in America and India, the power of the French Empire was broken and the British Empire emerged as the most powerful in the world.

## A BENEVOLENT DESPOT RULES PRUSSIA

Frederick II had shown himself to be a clever military leader, but he was also a capable ruler. He was one of the rulers of the eighteenth century who won the title of *benevolent* or *enlightened despots*. These rulers believed in absolute rule, but they also believed, as Frederick put it, that the ruler exists for the good of his people. He and other benevolent despots thought that they knew what was good for their people. Such rulers were interested in education and knew the writers and thinkers of their time.

As an enlightened despot, Frederick made many improvements in Prussia. He was liberal to all religions, and invited the persecuted Huguenots of France to settle in his country. Frederick drained the swamps and encouraged agriculture and industry in Prussia. He had the laws of the country clearly stated, and he established public schools and academies.

Frederick's successors, however, were weak rulers and for some time Prussia made very little progress.

1. Trace the rise of the Hohenzollern power.
2. Trace the development of Prussia to the time of Frederick II.
3. What family ruled Prussia?
4. Outline briefly the War of the Austrian Succession.
5. Why did the French and British get into the wars between the Austrians and Prussians?



6. What caused the Seven Years' War in Europe and how far did it spread?
7. Why was Frederick II called the "Great"?
8. What was a benevolent, or enlightened, despot? What did he believe about ruling his kingdoms?

## GERMANS ADD MUCH TO CULTURE

Although it might seem impossible, while wars were being fought and lands lost or gained by rival monarchs, the people of Austria and the other German states were interested in other things as well. Religion, science, literature, philosophy, and music were important in all the German states, and some outstanding contributions to our culture were made in all these areas.

**Religion** There were people in Germany who were disappointed in the Lutheran Church. It had thrown off the power of the papacy, but the individual still did not have the right to follow his own beliefs. A movement for more democracy in the Lutheran Church was started in the middle of the seventeenth century. The followers of this movement were called Pietists (pi'ětists) by their critics. The Pietists believed that the Christian doctrine should be a personal one, not one decided upon by the clergy. These teachings had a great influence upon Protestantism in Germany.

**Literature** It was not until the eighteenth century that German literature of note came out of the German states. Johann Wolfgang Goethe (gū'tě) (1749-1832) ranks as their first great writer and philosopher. Among the one hundred thirty-two volumes of his writings, the best known is his drama *Faust*. In this

great work the aged Dr. Faust sells his soul to the devil for youth and love. *Faust* pictures to what heights a human being may rise and to what depths he may sink. Goethe also wrote novels, poetry, and philosophy.

Another German writer of the eighteenth century was Friedrich Schiller (shīl'ěr) (1759-1805), a dramatist. His last and most important drama was *William Tell*, which glorified the Swiss struggle for independence. Schiller wrote much poetry that inspired his fellow Germans with a love for their fatherland.

Both *Faust* and *William Tell* have been made into operas and are best known in that form today. A number of Goethe's dramas have been set to music. In fact, no other poet except Shakespeare has inspired so many composers as Goethe did.

**Music** The German people have always been lovers of music. They sing on all occasions and their folk songs are among the best loved in the world. It is not surprising that such people should give the world some of the greatest musical geniuses of all times. One of these was George Friedrich Handel (1685-1759), who wrote oratorios, including the *Messiah*.

*The music of the opera Faust is melodious and its settings and characters are colorful.*

Courtesy New York City Center



There were other German geniuses in the art of music. Johann Sebastian Bach (bäk) (1685–1750), an organist and composer, is often spoken of as the “father of modern music.” His style was different from and more elaborate than that of former composers. Much of his music was written for religious occasions.

Wolfgang Amadeus Mozart (mō'tsärt) (1756–1791) was so gifted a musician that by the age of five he had not only learned to play the harpsichord but had also written some of the works he played. Although he died at a very early age, he had written over six hundred compositions that are counted among the world's finest music. His operatic music includes favorites like *The Magic Flute* and *The Marriage of Figaro*.

Mozart's music teacher was Franz Joseph Haydn (hī'd'n) (1732–1809), famed for his symphonies and oratorios. He was a master also at writing music for string quartets.

The rulers of many German states invited famous musicians and composers to visit their courts to give concerts. With this

*Unlike many musical geniuses, Mozart was encouraged in his music by his talented family.*

Beitmann Archive



introduction to the musical world, the performers often toured the capitals of Europe giving concerts to huge audiences. The German states of the eighteenth century led the world in music.

1. Who were the Pietists?
2. Name a piece of literature written by Goethe; by Schiller. What does each describe?
3. Name four German musicians and tell what each contributed to the field of music.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did men want to be emperors of the Holy Roman Empire when the position brought so little power and so many problems?
2. Why is William of Orange often called the George Washington of his country?
3. In the days of Gustavus Adolphus, Sweden was one of the great nations of Europe. Why was Sweden's geographical situation a drawback to her remaining in that position?
4. Has the attitude toward women changed enough since the days of Maria Theresa so that there would be no question today of a woman's ability to be the head of a government?
5. The Hohenzollern rulers were thrifty, or even stingy, at the time French rulers were living lavishly and spending extravagantly. Did the economy of the Hohenzollerns pay in the end?
6. Can you cite other instances in history when a country suddenly changed from being an ally to being an enemy, as Austria and Great Britain did?
7. A prominent British statesman said at the close of the Seven Years' War that England had become the capital of the world. What justification was there for such a statement?
8. In what sense was the colonial history of the United States really European history?

9. Although enlightened despots believed that they ruled for the benefit of their people, why was their type of government not so good for the people as a democratic rule?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• benevolent despot • “Black Hole” of Calcutta • enlightened despot • Invincible Armada • Pietists • Pragmatic Sanction • sepoy • Treaty of Westphalia • Huguenot • Inquisition • oratorio • symphony •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1519-1556 • 1618-1648 • 1648 • 1740 • 1756-1763 • 1763 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Austria • Baltic Sea • Bohemia • Calcutta • East Indies • Estonia • Finland • Gulf of St. Lawrence • Holy Roman Empire • Hungary • India • Livonia • Low Countries • Mississippi River • New Amsterdam • Oder River • Ohio River • Pondicherry • Prussia • Quebec • Silesia • Sweden • Vienna •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Bach • Catherine II • Charles V (Emperor) • Robert Clive • Frederick II • Frederick William (Great Elector) • Elizabeth • Mary Tudor • George II • Goethe • Gustavus Adolphus • Handel • Haydn • Joseph II • Louis XIV • Maria Theresa • Mary Tudor • Montcalm • Mozart • Faust • Richelieu • Schiller • William of Orange • James Wolfe •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Prepare (a) a list of women who hold high positions in the United States as members of Congress, as ambassadors to other countries, etc. (b) a list of women who are officials in the government of your state.

2. Select one of the following persons and give an oral report to the class on their accomplishments:

• Charles V • Philip II • Robert Clive • Frederick II • Richelieu • Schiller • Bach • Handel • Maria Theresa • William of Orange • Gustavus Adolphus • Gotthold Lessing • The Great Elector • Mozart • Haydn •

3. India was an interesting and rich country in the eighteenth century. Select one of the following topics, or another concerning India in which you are interested, and prepare an oral report:

• Indian rajahs • religious customs of India • Indian fakirs • Hindu architecture •

4. Divide the class into small teams, each to discuss pro and con one of the following statements:

a. Frederick II's attack upon Silesia was not justified.  
b. Charles V had too large an empire.  
c. England should not have deserted her ally, Austria.  
d. The East India Company was ruthless in its methods in India.  
e. A benevolent despot was no better as a ruler than the “divine right” Stuarts.

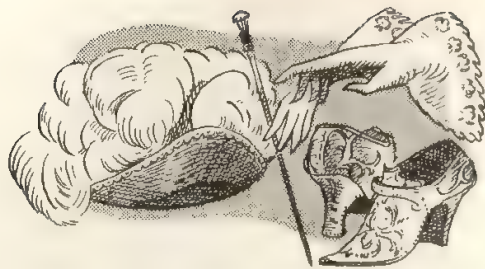
5. Select two members of the class, one to act as reporter and another to be interviewed. The reporter is to talk with a representative from the court of Frederick the Great about the emperor's plans for his people.

### III. Music in History

1. Many composers produced symphonies or other works to celebrate events in history or to commemorate national heroes. Note at least one. If possible, arrange to have the composition played, in whole or in part.

2. Ask for volunteers to talk to the class on the works of some of the composers mentioned in this chapter, illustrating the talk with records.





## French Monarchs Gain Power

**W**hile the trend in government in Great Britain was a slow, plodding, but steady, step-by-step process toward democracy, the history of the French government was very different. During the Middle Ages the trend in France was toward a strong central government, in the hands of the king. The king's power had been won by slow degrees from nobles who were jealous of their rights. Near the end of the Middle Ages, the Hundred Years' War gave the king a standing army and a tax to support it.

### FRANCE BECOMES UNITED

**Francis I** When Francis I (1515-1547) came to the throne, he had a united and strong nation. Despite this, there was fear in France. The Hapsburg family, rulers of Austria, had built a large empire of which Charles V was then head. Francis saw that he was hemmed in on every side by the Hapsburg realms, for the Netherlands, the German states, Milan, and Spain were held by Charles. Friction increased between Charles and Francis until war broke out in 1522, chiefly over lands in Italy. The war, which was fought chiefly in Italy, was waged at intervals for thirty-seven years. Both Francis and Charles died in the midst of it. In the end, the Hapsburg

family kept control of Italy, while Francis received small but important territories on her eastern border.

The armies of Francis had not been successful in Italy, but the expedition was important in French history. The French soldiers, returning from Italy, introduced the Renaissance movement north of the Alps. They brought back the learning and arts of Italy, which formed the basis for a new culture in France. Francis himself was much interested in the new learning and introduced so many of the new manners in his court that he came to be known as the "gentleman king." The old palace was no longer to his liking and he employed some of the greatest Italian architects and artists to build and decorate a new palace for him at Fontainebleau (fɒn t'ɪn blə').

**Civil Wars of Religion** Following the death of Francis I, France was torn by a half century of religious wars. The Protestant Huguenots were hunted and cruelly persecuted by the kings. The Protestants were strong enough to resist, and a series of bitter civil wars followed until Henry IV (1589-1610), a Huguenot, came to the throne.

**Henry IV** Henry has come down through history not only as one of

the great French kings, but one of the most beloved. He ushered in a new dynasty, a family that was destined to rule for two hundred years. They were the Bourbons, the most powerful monarchs on the continent of Europe. Henry became ruler of a country that was in a chaotic state. However, he was equal to the task of reducing it to order. One of his most important tasks was to restore the power and authority of the king, which had suffered during the civil wars. This he did in a few years. He was wise in his choice of ministers, who helped him to restore good government and prosperity. He settled the religious question by issuing the Edict of Nantes in 1598.

Henry paid particular attention to the prosperity of his country. His finance minister, the Duke of Sully, saved the country from bankruptcy. Henry believed that agriculture was the basis of French economy and so he encouraged farming. Roads, canals, and bridges were built to help the farmer. Henry also encouraged the manufacture of textiles, especially silks and linens.

His foreign policy was also wise. He maintained peace with his neighbors. He was interested in French lands in the New World and sent out a company that established a settlement in Nova Scotia. Champlain founded Quebec a bit later, from which center French missionaries and explorers searched out the New World. It is no wonder that the French called Henry the "Good."

**Louis XIII** Upon the death of Henry IV his eight-year-old son became king as Louis XIII (1610-1643). Later, when he took over the reins of government, Louis demonstrated little of the ability of his father, and it seemed for a

time that France would again slip back into bad government. In 1624, however, a great statesman became the chief minister of France and its real ruler. He was Cardinal Richelieu (rē shē lyū').

**Cardinal Richelieu** Richelieu, like Francis I, was interested in the culture of France. He improved French court life, making it more formal and elegant. He encouraged artists and writers. Perhaps his most important contribution along this line, however, was the founding of the French Academy, composed of forty French scholars, which is still in existence. Its chief function is to make the rules for French grammar and to sanction or reject new words in the French language. The French dictionary was compiled by the Academy and is kept up-to-date by it.

The able and energetic Richelieu had two great aims in his government. The first was to make the king supreme in France, and the second, to make France supreme in Europe. There were two groups

*The Edict of Nantes gave the Huguenots the right to hold fortified towns, for which they were later persecuted.*

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in France who threatened the king's power. One of these was the nobles who had strong castles, and even as late as Richelieu's time, vast powers in certain districts, where they carried on a great amount of intrigue against the government. Richelieu destroyed all the castles not necessary to the national defense and by a system of spies routed the intriguers. A second group opposed to the king were the Protestants, the Huguenots. Richelieu suppressed the Huguenots, who were using the power granted them in the Edict of Nantes to defy royal authority.

Richelieu refused to call the Estates-General into session. This left the king free to do as he pleased. The king issued the laws and enforced them; he levied the taxes and spent the money. Thus Richelieu was the chief architect of an absolute monarchy.

Richelieu attained with equal efficiency his other aim, to make France supreme in Europe. He knew that the Hapsburgs who ruled the lands surrounding France would have to be reduced in power if France was to rise in power. The Thirty Years' war gave him his opportunity to do this. Richelieu died before the close of the war, but not before France had turned the tide against the Hapsburgs. The general settlement after the war did not give France her natural boundaries, as Richelieu had hoped. She did, however, gain Alsace along the upper Rhine and the three key fortresses of Metz, Toul, and Verdun.

1. How did the development of the French government differ from the development of the English government in the Middle Ages?
2. How did the Hundred Years' War affect the French government?
3. Why did Francis I fear the Hapsburgs?

4. What importance did the French expedition into Italy have for French culture?
5. List the improvements of Henry IV.
6. What position did Richelieu hold in the Church? In the French government?
7. What were Richelieu's two great aims? How did he promote learning and culture?
8. How did Richelieu deal with the groups in France that were curbing the king's power?
9. Why did Richelieu bring France into the Thirty Years' War?
10. What did France gain from the Thirty Years' War?

## THE GOLDEN AGE OF FRANCE WAS IN THE REIGN OF LOUIS XIV

**Louis XIV** France was the leading power in Europe during the reign of Louis XIV (1643-1715). Since Louis XIV was only five years old when his father, Louis XIII, died, the destiny of France had to be put in someone else's hands for a few years. In the meantime, Louis XIV was taught that he was king "by the grace of God" and that no one had the right to question his power. It was no wonder, then, that when he became twenty-one years of age he decided to be his own chief minister and to have no Estates General to give advice. Louis was well suited for his role as absolute monarch because he was a man of great energy and he worked hard. Moreover, he was dignified and kingly in manner and appearance and carried his part out well.

**French Culture** The "grand age" of French culture came during the Age of Louis XIV, and Paris remained the center of culture for many generations afterwards. Louis XIV was very extravagant and surrounded himself with everything in



keeping with his exalted position. He built, largely by "forced labor," the famous Versailles Palace. The records of the cost of this building were destroyed by Louis, but it is estimated to have cost the nation about \$100,000,000. To the palace Louis invited painters, sculptors, writers, musicians, and actors to carry on their work and to glorify his position. The nobles, or courtiers, as they were called, crowded to Versailles to live near the King and to share the extravagant entertainment that he lavished upon his court. Foreign rulers vied with each other to imitate all this luxury, but no court in Europe ever equalled Louis' in elegance.

The most noted men of the time who graced the court were writers. The comedy writer, Moliere (mô lyâr') delighted the courtiers with his wit, while Racine (rà-sēn') the great tragic poet, gave them, and us today, some of the world's most celebrated plays. Landscape artists made the grounds around the palace the finest in Europe. Painters and sculptors added works that are still renowned. Weavers created fine tapestries and rugs to adorn the large rooms. In return, pensions were granted to these artists and their names became known throughout Europe. French furniture, dress, literature, and art became the model for Europe, and the French language became the diplomatic language of the world.

**Colbert** Louis XIV was assisted in his work by his minister of finance, Jean-Baptiste Colbert (zhăn bâ tēst' kôl bâr'). Colbert improved the financial condition of the country by reducing taxes on the working people and by bringing efficiency into government. He introduced new industries into France and encouraged old ones. Skilled workers were brought in from



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*This page from an almanac of the days of Louis XIV shows an evening entertainment at his court.*

other countries, and so improved was the quality of the French textiles that French goods became very popular in foreign markets. He fostered colonial expansion also. A number of chartered trading companies established trading posts and colonies in India, Canada, and the West Indies. It was Colbert's expert handling of the economy of France that not only made possible Louis's program for the cultural development of the country, but also helped France to withstand the strains of a series of costly wars.

**Religious Persecution** In the religious life of France, Louis XIV adopted policies that would give him greater power



Metropolitan Museum of Art

*The Gobelin tapestries, made in Paris, were famous although not always pleasing. This one is The Sower.*

and at the same time unify the country. He limited the influence of the pope in managing the Church in France. On the other hand, he took stern measures to stamp out religious heresy. The French Protestants suffered severe, inhuman treatment. Finally, in 1685, they lost all of their privileges when the Edict of Nantes was revoked. Great numbers of them escaped to England and the Netherlands. They were welcomed by those countries because many of them

*The minuet was one of the most sedate of all dances. It was in keeping with the elegance of dress of this period.*

Bettmann Archive



were skilled workers who could serve the expanding industries of their new homelands. Their gain was France's loss.

**Wars** If Louis had been willing to apply himself to his domestic affairs and leave his foreign affairs to a more peace-loving person, he might have been a great success. However, he wanted to complete the natural boundaries of France and so he waged several long and exhausting wars. In some of the wars his armies were badly defeated. These wars were so costly in wealth and manpower that Louis left France in debt and with a badly reduced army. The Age of Louis XIV, the longest reign in history, was brilliant and the envy of Europe, yet it left France weakened.

1. Why has Louis XIV been referred to as the perfect type of king?
2. Under what ruler was the "grand age" of French culture? What does that phrase mean?
3. Tell about the life of the French court in the Palace of Versailles.
4. Name some of the French writers of the day of Louis XIV.
5. List the important measures taken by Colbert to make France financially sound.
6. How did Louis XIV manage the nobles to keep them satisfied and loyal?
7. Why was the foreign policy of Louis XIV bad for France?

## CRITICS URGE WIDESPREAD REFORM IN FRANCE

**Louis XV** Louis's successor, his great-grandson, Louis XV (1715-1774), came to the throne at the age of five. His reign was marked by wars that were even more disastrous to France than those of



Louis XIV. They were the War of the Austrian Succession and the Seven Years' War, at the end of which France had lost practically all the empire she had gained in the New World. In India, too, she was checked by the British, while at home her financial condition became almost hopeless.

**Louis XVI** When Louis XVI ascended the throne of France in 1774, the voices of criticism were growing louder. Many of the finest people in France were complaining about many evils they observed in their country. This was the Age of Enlightenment, when thoughtful people were recommending political, religious, and social changes.

**Voltaire** François de Voltaire (völ târ') (1694–1778) was a sharp critic whose clever writing did much to awaken Frenchmen to the need of reform in their government. He had a biting wit which often got him into trouble. On more than one occasion he had to flee from France. Voltaire was a champion of free thought and free speech. In England he found that people had the liberty to criticize their government and to belong to the religion of their choice. He bemoaned the fact that a Frenchman had to live abroad to enjoy such freedom.

**Rousseau** One of the radical reformers in France was Jean Jacques Rousseau (rōō sō') (1712–1778). In his famous book, *The Social Contract*, Rousseau argued that men have natural rights, and if they were allowed to exercise those rights, they would also respect their neighbors' rights. You will recall that John Locke, of England, had these same ideas about a hundred years earlier. Rousseau argued that govern-



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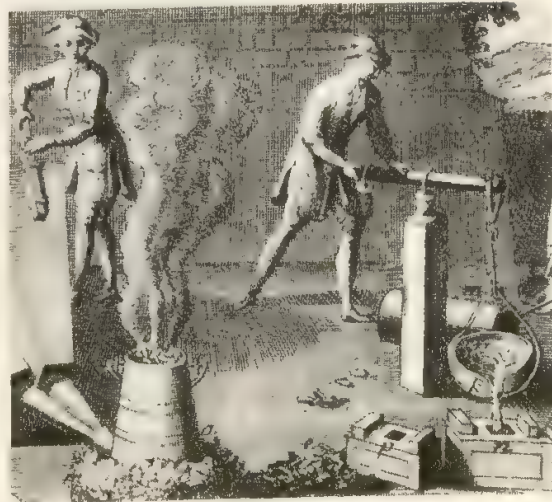
*The witty Voltaire visits Frederick the Great in Potsdam and entertains the famous palace roundtable.*

ment should get its right to rule from the consent of the governed, not from God, as the French kings had been accustomed to thinking. Such theories were very revolutionary in France, and Rousseau was forced to leave the country.

In 1762 Rousseau wrote another book, *Emile*, which helped to change the whole trend of European education. In it Rousseau described the education of an imaginary boy in infancy, childhood, boyhood, and youth,

*The French writer and critic, Denis Diderot, compiled a 17-volume encyclopedia. This page from the encyclopedia shows an iron foundry of the 1700's.*

Beitmann Archive





and the education of the girl who was to become Emile's wife. Many of the ideas expressed were not original with Rousseau, but his outline of education was revolutionary. He believed that schooling up to that time was too much a process of teaching facts instead of a process of growth of the intellectual powers of the child.

The following ideas that Rousseau had about education sound familiar to us today, but they upset the teachers of his day.

1. Education should train the child to think and to reason.
2. Education should follow the natural instincts and interests of the child.
3. Physical activity should be a part of education, especially of the young.

Although *Emile* was condemned by the French government, it had a profound influence upon education and the life of children. Educators who followed Rousseau began to study the child and base their teaching on his needs and interests.

*Pestalozzi of Switzerland first taught industrial arts. He started a school for poor children on his estate.*

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**Public Education** Out of France in the eighteenth century came another of the great ideas which was to change man's way of life in Europe. As we have seen, up to this time most of the schools in Europe had been maintained by churches or by wealthy persons interested in improving their fellow men. The political reformers of France, however, believed that education should be supported and directed by a state if it was to be truly democratic. The French Constitution of 1791 declared that "There shall be created and organized a system of public instruction common to all citizens and free." Finally, in 1795, schools were established in France at public expense and open to all. Of course they were far from perfect, poorly organized, and were not permanent, but by the close of the eighteenth century the idea of publicly supported schools had been planted in Western Europe.

There was good reason for all the criticisms of French society and the French government. When Louis XV had seen the dangerous condition that the country and the monarchy were facing, he remarked, "It will last as long as I do, and my successor may take care of himself." The criticisms that his grandson, Louis XVI, heard were more than he could meet. The new king was entirely unfitted to solve the tremendous problems he faced, although he meant well.

1. What ideas did the writers Voltaire and Rousseau propose to make France more democratic?
2. What ideas of education were advocated in *Emile*?
3. What changes in education did the political reformers of the eighteenth century recommend?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The wars of Francis I led to the spread of Italian culture to the north. How is the culture of one country spread to another today?

2. Why was the foreign policy of Henry IV wiser than that of Louis XIV? Is it always wiser for a nation to avoid war?

3. Henry IV believed that agriculture was the basis of French economy. Is agriculture basic in the economy of the United States?

4. Why would a man of the disposition of Louis XIV not want a minister like Richelieu?

5. At one time Louis XIV said, "I am the state." What did he mean?

6. Why did Louis XIV not let anyone know how much Versailles Palace cost?

7. For generations France led the world in styles for men's and women's clothes. What nation leads the world in styles today?

8. Were the criticisms of French society and government just?

9. Do you agree with Rousseau's ideas of education? Would Rousseau approve of the type of education you are being given?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• courtiers • Edict of Nantes • French Academy • "gentleman king" • "grand age" • Huguenots •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1643-1715 • 1715-1774 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Alps Mountains • Alsace • Metz • Milan • Nova Scotia • Pyrenees Mountains • Quebec • Rhine River • Toul • Verdun •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Colbert • Francis I • Henry IV • Louis XIII • Louis XIV • Louis XV • Louis XVI • Moliere • Racine • Richelieu • Rousseau • Sully • Voltaire •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Write a dialogue between a soldier of Francis I and a resident of Paris when the French army returned from Italy. With another student, read your dialogue in class.

2. Imagine that you were a visitor at Versailles in the days of Louis XIV. Write a letter home describing one of the following persons or things that you saw there.

• Louis XIV • Colbert • The fountains of Versailles • The gardens of Versailles • The Hall of Mirrors •

3. One pupil may report to the class on the French Academy, another on the compiling of the English dictionary, and a third on the making of the dictionary of the United States.

4. The following contributed to the splendor of Versailles or other French palaces. Select one for an oral report to the class.

• Nicolas Mansard • Andre Le Notre • Charles Le Brun • Madame de Sévigné • Jean de La Fontaine • Pierre Corneille •

## III. History Related to the Creative Arts

1. Some members of the class will find it interesting to make models in wood, clay, or cardboard of the Palace of Fontainebleau, the Palace of Versailles, the Hotel des Invalides, or one of the triumphal arches of Paris.

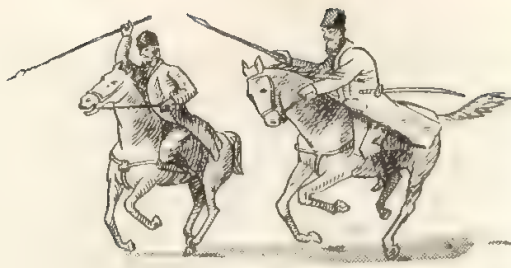
2. A group of girls may dress the hair of one of their number in the mode of a lady of the court of Louis XIV.

3. Another group may dress a doll to resemble a man or woman living in this period.

## IV. The Bulletin Board

Divide the class into committees to collect pictures for the bulletin board. Each committee may show its pictures for one day. Suggestions:

• French architecture • French furniture (Arrange your pictures according to "periods," that is, according to the reign during which it was made.) • French dress by periods •



## Russia Develops an Autocratic Government

**B**y the time the reign of Ivan III (1462–1505) had closed, Russia had thrown off the yoke of the Mongols and had regained control of the government. She was still oriental in her outlook, however. The long rule of the Mongols had turned Russia's face eastward, toward the Pacific.

### RUSSIA FACES EASTWARD

Ivan had established himself as "Autocrat of All the Russias." By fair and foul means he had gained possession of several surrounding states, uniting all of the land from Poland on the west to the Arctic Ocean on the north and the Ural Mountains on the east. He had posed as a successor to the Eastern emperor and as protector of the Eastern, or Orthodox, Church. Succeeding emperors enlarged Russian territory and assumed the title of "Tsar," recalling the power of the Caesars under the Roman Empire. Russia was a growing power, but it had little influence upon and not much connection with the Western European countries.

**Pushing Eastward** One of the most important developments in Russia in

the last half of the sixteenth and first half of the seventeenth centuries was her push to the east. The first persons to carry out the eastward movement were the Cossacks, the fierce warriors and fine horsemen of the Russian frontier borders. They led the way, and they were followed by fur trappers and traders. In the battles with the natives, the Cossacks pushed farther and farther eastward. When the Tsar learned that Russians had gone as far as the Amur River, he eagerly studied the crude maps of the day and looked forward to the time when Russia would have an eastern "window" at the mouth of the Amur. By the middle of the seventeenth century, Russians had reached the Pacific and established Russia's claims to lands seven thousand miles from the capital at Moscow. From there they went across the Bering Sea into Alaska.

In their eastward expansion they came into conflict with Chinese claims to Manchuria. The two countries agreed that Russia was to stay out of Manchuria but that Russian merchants would be permitted to come to China. For two hundred years there was peace between the two nations on this basis. Russian furs were traded to the Chinese for valuable silks and tea.



At first settlers were slow in going into Siberia. Some missionaries of the Orthodox Church ventured into the wilds, however, and were among the earliest explorers of the region. The government sent criminals and political prisoners to Siberia, too. Many of the prisoners were given their freedom in Siberia in return for settling the land themselves or opening a section for settlement by others. But by the beginning of the eighteenth century there were still only about a quarter of a million Russians occupying the vast territory that included Alaska and Siberia. Yet the tsars had a great and potentially rich empire.

1. How did Ivan III expand Russian territory?
2. Who were the Cossacks?
3. What territory was Russia claiming by 1700?
4. What commodity did the Russians trade in China?
5. What treaty was made by Russia with China?
6. Whom did the government send into Siberia?

#### **PETER THE GREAT TURNED RUSSIA TOWARD THE WEST**

It was not until the time of Peter the Great (1682–1725) that Russia began to take her place among the nations of Europe. Peter's grandfather had been chosen tsar by his fellow nobles, thus bringing a new family, the Romanovs, to the throne. Peter was determined to turn his country's interests toward Western Europe and to modernize Russia. In order to do this, he went himself to the countries of Western Europe to study their industries, armed forces, governments, and customs. In Holland he disguised himself as a workman in a shipyard, and he

traveled in disguise in England and Prussia. He hired trained workmen from these countries to go to Russia to make the changes he wanted. A revolt among his bodyguard interrupted his plans. He returned to Russia and with ruthlessness and thoroughness put down the revolt and restored order. Seven thousand persons were put to death, several by Peter personally.

The revolt taken care of, Peter set about with equal vigor putting his new knowledge into use. He modeled his government along the lines of an absolute monarchy like that of Louis XIV of France. He created a cabinet of officials to help him handle the problems of state and carry out his plans. Since he was unable to find many competent and experienced Russians, Peter employed some foreigners in positions of responsibility. He organized a strong army like that of Prussia and hired foreign officers to train it. The Church was made more completely subordinate to the government. Peter introduced new industries, many of them state-owned, with serfs as workers. But he also encouraged an industrial class to set up businesses. The peasants, whose freedom had been gradually taken away, were now reduced to complete serfdom and made to work on the land of the many new nobles that Peter created. The women of Russia had for centuries been living in seclusion according to the Eastern custom. Now they mingled with men like the women of Western Europe. Peter even attacked the styles of dress. Men had to shave off their beards or pay a heavy tax, and they were required to don the styles of Frenchmen or Germans. So Peter tried to make Russia more like the Western powers.

**Windows to the West** Peter believed that if Russia was to be Western,

she must have a port on the Baltic and one on the Black Sea, "windows to the West" he called them. The Ottoman Empire of the Turks kept him from the Black Sea, so he waged war against her. He had poor success, however, and in the end Turkey kept her Black Sea territory, at least for the time being. He had more success in fighting Charles XII of Sweden, who was only eighteen years old. But he was a brilliant soldier and won a great victory. Later, Peter took the territory on the Baltic between Prussia and Finland. Peter now had one "window" to the West.

On the bleak marshlands along the Gulf of Finland that he had just acquired, Peter built a new capital city that was to have no ties with the old oriental Russian culture. The new city was built at great expense in money and lives, for lumber had to be brought by sled for hundreds of miles over the frozen marshlands in the cold Russian winters. The city arose, as one writer says, "in the tears and anguish of the slaves." It was, however, a symbol of a new Russia, and the ambitious Tsar named it St. Petersburg.

burg. When Peter died he left the new Russia with a strongly centralized government, a powerful position in the Baltic Sea, and a growing interest in Western European affairs. Russia also had an eye on her weak, poorly defended neighbor, Poland.

1. To what family did Peter the Great belong?
2. What was his plan for Russia?
3. How did Peter prepare himself to carry out his plan?
4. How did Peter carry out his plan?
5. What two "windows" did Peter want on the West? Was he successful in getting them?
6. Describe the building of St. Petersburg.

## CATHERINE II MADE RUSSIA A GREAT POWER

Catherine II (1762-1796) was the daughter of a Prussian general. Her marriage, when only fourteen, to the heir to the Russian throne was arranged for political purposes. When she came to Russia to live, she surrounded herself with Russians and

*Peter hired French and Italian architects to create his new capital city along classical lines. This is one of the early buildings of the university. In 1713 Peter moved from Moscow to St. Petersburg.*

Sovfoto



learned to speak their language, adopted their customs, and became a member of the Russian Church. Her husband, who was mentally retarded, had no ability to govern the country. Within six months after he ascended the throne, the scheming but very capable Catherine led a revolt against him and took over the government with the backing of the army.

**Domestic Policy** The eighteenth century was a century of intellectual interests, and Catherine, while not well educated herself, showed interest in the foreign writers of the time. She corresponded with the leading French philosophers and even invited Voltaire, the great French philosopher, to her court. While she discussed reforms with these men, she did not put into practice the reforms they advocated. On the contrary, the best writers of her country were exiled to Siberia for daring to write sympathetically about the peasants. The Russian government under Catherine II was as autocratic as ever, and the Church was kept strictly under the power of the ruler.

The lot of the serfs became even worse than before. There were few countries of Europe, even in the Middle Ages, where there was more human wretchedness than in eighteenth-century Russia. The land was owned by landlords who counted their wealth in acres, cattle, and the human beings who were their serfs. By contrast, the serfs lived in huts made of sod or of stones picked up in the fields. They worked long hours and had very little food or medical care. Their deaths meant little more and sometimes less to the landlords than the deaths of oxen or horses.

The peasants who lived in the villages were not much better off than their country



*Russia of the eighteenth century was a striking example of a strong nation taking advantage of the weak.*

neighbors. They were always hungry, and in the long winters constantly cold.

**Foreign Policy** Catherine's foreign policy was as aggressive as that of Peter the Great, and it was because of her foreign policy that she won the title of "the Great." Her expansion to the West was blocked by the Ottoman Empire and Poland. Both of these countries had weak governments. In a war with the Turks, Catherine obtained the lands north of the Black Sea, and the Dniester (nēs'tēr) River was made the boundary between Russia and the Ottoman Empire.

Poland in the eighteenth century was next to Russia in size among the countries of Europe, but despite her size she was weak. She had no natural boundaries. There were



many nationalities in the country, each speaking its own language. In religious faith the population was divided into Roman Catholic, Protestant, Orthodox, and Jewish. There was practically no middle class. On the one hand there were the nobles who owned the land and played corrupt politics; on the other hand there were the great masses of poor and ignorant peasants who paid the taxes. The government was weak and corrupt. The king, who had very little power, was elected, and the parliament could not pass a law if a single vote was cast against it. Under such circumstances a stable government was impossible.

Catherine II of Russia was quick to see the situation in Poland and to take advantage of it. She meddled in a Polish election to get a king of her own choice on the throne. Then she joined with Frederick II of Prussia and Maria Theresa of Austria in the first partition of Poland, in 1772, when each took a section. In two successive partitionings they erased Poland from the map of Europe. Russia received more than half of the country and now her borders extended to Austria and Prussia.



The eighteenth century had seen a great change in Russia. Peter the Great had been interested in the ways of the West. Catherine had pushed her boundaries southward and westward. She left Russia one of the great powers of Europe.

1. What was the country of Catherine II's birth?
2. How did Catherine become Tsarina of Russia?
3. What interest did Catherine have in the ideas of reform that were common in her day?
4. What was the condition of the peasants in Catherine's time?
5. Why was Poland a weak state? How did Catherine take advantage of that fact?

## TWO CENTURIES OF PROGRESS

During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there was much warfare throughout Europe. Rival dynasties, the Spanish and Austrian Hapsburgs, the German Hohenzollerns, the French Bourbons, and the Russian Romanovs, cost Europe untold suffering because of their ambitions. The English and French fought out their differences wherever they met around the world. Yet despite all the bloodshed, the world made progress through the thought and effort of a few great minds. Through them, the chief nations of modern Europe attained unity. The spirit of democracy began to make itself felt in Great Britain and in her American colonies. Some of the finest literature and most wonderful music ever produced came out of this period. By the close of the eighteenth century scientists had discovered truths that were to change man's thinking and way of life in the following centuries. The monarchs of these

# 7 • Milestones Toward Democracy

England of the 17th and 18th centuries made progress toward a democratic form of government. Many of the political reforms of that day are a part of our own American democracy. Some slight improvements appeared in other countries also.



In England, Charles I was forced to sign the Petition of Right, which gave some important privileges to the people. England made no progress toward democracy under the autocratic Puritan, Oliver Cromwell, and under the stubborn James II.



William and Mary signed the Bill of Rights and the Toleration Act. The Habeas Corpus Act of 1678 continues to safeguard our liberties. Later the English king lost the power to veto acts of Parliament.



Elsewhere in Europe, democracy made few gains. In Spain, the rights of the people suffered under Philip II. Frederick II of Prussia served the people well, but he was followed by weak rulers. Richelieu turned France into an absolute monarchy, and the lot of the serfs of Russia was a miserable one.



two centuries were still the rulers of their people in most countries, but there were strong indications that the *people* were beginning to bestir themselves.

1. Name the ruling families of Spain, France, Prussia, Austria, and Russia in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.
2. What were some of the advances made by European nations during that period?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In view of Russia's past history, do you think it was easier for the Russians to accept the dictatorship that they have today than it would be for the people of Great Britain or the United States?

2. What, if any, parallel do you see between the eastward movement of the Russians and the westward movement in the United States in the nineteenth century?

# 7 • Milestones of Living

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries were remarkable periods in the progress of mankind. Wars caused widespread devastation and misery, but at the same time, great minds were at work for man.



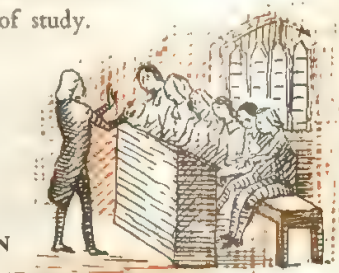
## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

Spurred on by the discoveries made during the Renaissance, men of science, working with the few instruments they had, continued their study and experiments. Outstanding among them was Francis Bacon.

Newton discovered the law of gravity, and William Harvey made important contributions to the study of the human body. Academies and universities added science to their courses of study.



## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION



Education, beyond scientific research, did not advance far during these centuries. The universities and private schools were for the wealthy few. Robert Raikes' Sunday Schools taught neglected children to read so they could read the Bible. His system spread throughout England, but these schools reached a very small proportion of children. The only free schools in England were church schools.

3. How do you account for the fact that serfdom was thrust upon the Russian peasants at a time when it was dying in Western Europe?

4. Why was it more difficult for Peter to rid Russia of Oriental customs than it had been for the Russians to acquire them in the first place?

5. The fact that the first book to be printed in Russia came a century after the first book published in Western Europe tells you what about the culture of Russia?

6. What is your opinion of Peter the Great as a man?

7. Do you think that Catherine II was genuinely interested in the culture of Western Europe?

8. Why did Russia need ports on the Baltic and Black Seas since she already had Arctic Ocean ports?

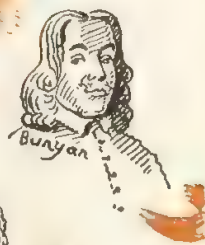
9. Account for the fact that Russia is a country of many nationalities.



In France, the writings of Rousseau, particularly his book *Emile*, influenced educators until, in 1795, the French government opened public schools. Most of them were ill-equipped and their teachers were untrained, but they started people thinking about the desirability of educational opportunities for all.



In England, Milton, Bunyan, Defoe, Swift, Pope, Johnson, and Boswell; and in Germany and France, Goethe, Schiller, Moliere, Racine, and others inspired the liberals of their day with their writings and added to the world's literature.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS



The portraits of Reynolds, Gainsborough, Romney, and other artists; the music of Handel, Bach, Mozart, and their fellow composers; and the



efforts of Richelieu in France encouraged and developed an interest in the fine arts among the privileged classes of Europe in all areas of culture.

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

- autocracy • "Autocrat of All the Russians"
- Cossacks • tsar • "window to the West"

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

- 1682-1725 • 1762-1796 • 1772 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

- Alaska • Amur River • Arctic Ocean • Austria • Baltic Sea • Black Sea • China

- Dniester River • Finland • Manchuria • Moscow • Ottoman Empire • Poland • Prussia • Russia • Siberia • St. Petersburg • Sweden • Ural Mountains •

a. On a map of the world show Russia as it existed in 1500. b. in 1800.

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

- Catherine II • Charles XII • Frederick II • Ivan III • Maria Theresa • Peter the Great • Voltaire •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. If you like to paint, draw, or model, here are some suggestions:

- Cossack • Peter the Great • Catherine II
- The Kremlin • A typical Russian Church •

2. Write one of the following to be read to the class after the teacher has approved it:

- a. A dialogue between two old men when Peter the Great issued his decree concerning men's beards.
- b. A conversation between two Poles after their country had been blotted from the map.
- c. A conversation between two writers who had been exiled and who meet in Siberia.
- d. A dialogue between two peasants when Catherine II assumed rule of Russia.
- e. A five-minute news broadcast that might have been given when Peter the Great returned from the West.
- f. A five-minute news broadcast that might have been given when Russia reached the Pacific in her eastward expansion.

3. Although they were very different, the Cossacks of Russia represented a romantic period in Russian history as the cowboys did in American history. Read further on the Cossacks and report to the class.

4. Conduct a Quick Quiz using questions on this unit suggested by the class. Appoint a chairman from the class.

## III. History in Art

If you are interested in art, get pictures of icons, jewelled crowns, or altar furnishings for which the Russians were famous. Display them on the bulletin board with appropriate labels.

## IV. Class Committee Work

Collect pictures of Russian architecture for the bulletin board. Place beside them pictures of architecture of Western European countries of the same period. Point out the differences for the class.

## GOOD READING

BRUUN, GEOFFREY, *The Enlightened Despots*, Henry Holt & Co., 1929

*Discusses the reigns of Frederick II, Joseph II, and Catherine II, as well as some of the lesser despots.*

DARINGER, HELEN FERN, *Pilgrim Kate*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1949

*Relates the life of a fifteen-year-old girl in England and the events that led to the sailing of the Mayflower.*

FOSTER, GENEVIEVE, *George Washington's World, 1732-1799*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1941

*A series of close-ups of many interesting figures of the eighteenth century, weaving their lives together.*

HAWES, CHARLES BOARDMAN, *Dark Frigate*, Little, Brown & Co., 1925

*A young lad runs away to sea and is captured by pirates.*

NOWAK, FRANK, *Medieval Slavdom and the Rise of Russia*, Henry Holt & Co., 1930

*This is a short but scholarly book that can be enjoyed by better readers. It has good chapters on Peter the Great and Catherine the Great.*

PACKARD, L. B., *The Age of Louis XIV*, Henry Holt & Co., 1929

*A book for more mature readers. Includes political, military, and cultural history of Louis' reign.*

PARKER, GILBERT, *The Power and the Glory*, Harper & Brothers, 1925

*Tells the story of LaSalle's explorations in America.*

PARKER, GILBERT, *The Seats of the Mighty*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1927

*Presents many historic characters of the Seven Years' War, from the death of Braddock to 1759.*

STREET, ALICIA, *Land of the English People*, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1946

*Traces English history, picturing the land and the people. Comparisons are made with the United States.*

TREVELYAN, GEORGE MACAULEY, *English Social History*, Longmans, Green & Co. Inc., 1942

*An exceptionally good book for better readers.*

WEYMAN, S. J., *Gentleman of France*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc. 1921

*The hero of the story is a Huguenot who goes on a mission of importance.*

WEYMAN, S. J., *Under the Red Robe*, Longmans, Green & Co. Inc., 1950

*A romance in the days of Richelieu.*

*In many areas*



*people fought for freedom*



# THE UPHILL STRUGGLE

When Locke, Rousseau, Voltaire, and other thinkers wrote about theories of government, they started something. People began asking questions. Why should kings rule other people? Why should nobles have special privileges? Why should peasants, wage earners, and merchants pay the bills of government and get so little in return? The middle class then began to demand changes in these conditions. Let us pay less and the nobles more; let us have a voice in the government and let the king listen to what we have to say. After all, they argued, had not Locke and Rousseau written that *all* men have natural rights, the rights of life, liberty, and property?

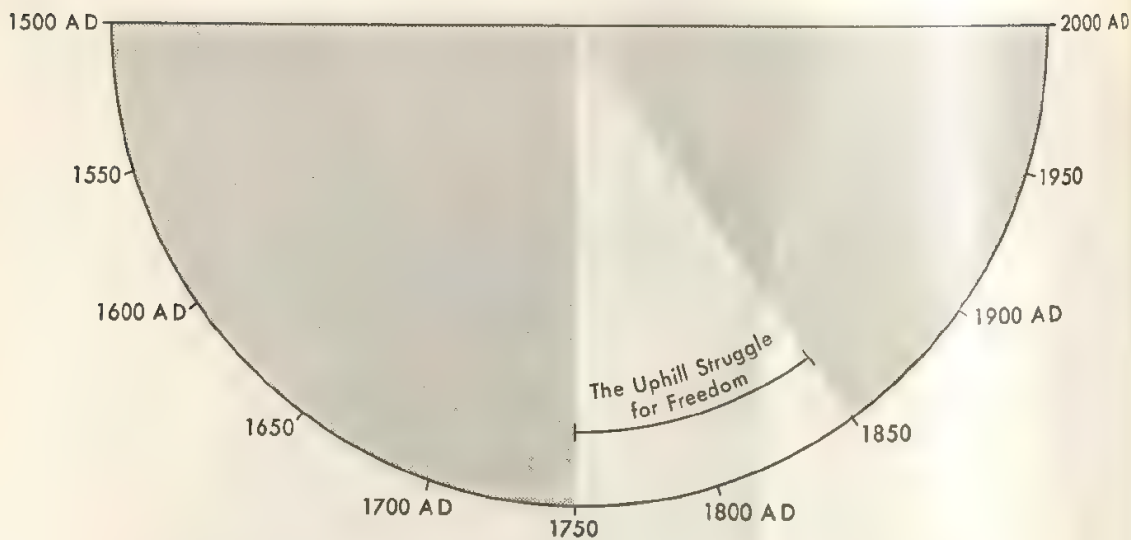
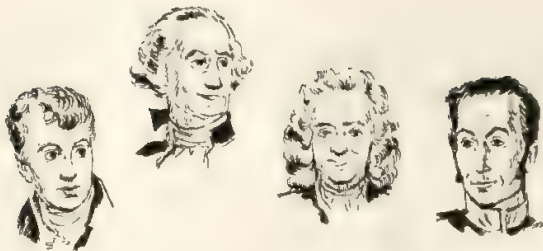
Men who asked such questions and argued in this way were called *liberals*, and the movement that they started in Western Europe was known as *liberalism*. Kings and nobles who still believed in the divine right of kings and special privileges for themselves tried to suppress the liberals. When they succeeded, it was only for a time, however. If the liberals were put down, they went into hiding and came out later, or they worked in some other place. Many liberals willingly died for their cause, too, but others arose to take their places.

People were asking another set of questions. These had to do with loyalty to the country in which they were living, and they ran something like this. Why do we have to live under a king who is a foreigner and who speaks a language we do not know? Why do we have to support by our taxes churches that teach a religion we do not practice? Why are we not permitted to celebrate our own heroes of the past, instead of being forced to honor the memory of heroes not our own? Our religion and our language are as good, they said, or perhaps a bit better, than those of our ruler. Our heroes were braver than those whose memory we are expected to celebrate. We have a glorious past, too, so why cannot we be a nation to ourselves or join with other people like ourselves to form a nation? People who talked that way were asking questions about and arguing for *nationalism*, that is, loyalty to their own country, its language, religion, and heroes.

In this unit we shall see many instances of both liberalism and nationalism at work in Europe and our own country.

*for Freedom*









## America and France Fight for Liberty

When the early settlers set foot on American soil they left completely behind them many of the ways of life they had known. Instead of a well-populated country with farms and cities, they found a wilderness. The log cabins they built were very different from the thatched cottages of their homelands. In place of mutton and beef and cabbage, they learned to eat rabbit, deer, wild turkey, potatoes, sweet potatoes, corn, and squash grown in the New World. In Europe they had been accustomed to security in their homes; in America they had to guard against wild animals and hostile Indians. There were no lords in the New World to whom they had to doff their hats. This, too, was a change, and a welcome one.

The man who wanted to survive in the New World had to be self-reliant. There were few doctors, few dressmakers, few cobblers. The pioneer had to raise his food and mend his plow. He had to defend himself from his enemies. In other words, he had to depend upon himself. Such self-reliant people do not readily let others tell them how they should be governed. Then, too, the head of the government was far away. It was a six or eight weeks' journey across

the Atlantic to London. Laws passed in England often seemed unreasonable to people living at such a distance and under such different conditions. The colonists wanted to make their own laws to suit their own situation.

### TIES WITH ENGLAND LOOSEN

By the time the French lost their colonies in America, in 1763, the majority of the

*In 1659 the Dutch settlement on Manhattan Island was a sturdy though tiny community.*

Philip Gendreau



colonists had become very American. Most of them had never been in England, although perhaps ninety per cent of them were of British stock. The others had come from other countries of Europe. It is not strange, then, that the ties between England and her colonies were weakening.

### British Policy before 1763

This weakening of ties was partly due to the policy pursued by the British government toward her American colonies. The British Parliament was occupied with other problems and paid little attention to them. As compared with the French or Spanish colonies, the English colonies before 1763 were free to do as they pleased. Britain placed no restrictions on them as to religion, although the colonists themselves often placed religious restrictions on one another. It is true that laws were passed restricting



*The British had little idea of the hornets' nest the Stamp Act would stir up in the colonies.*

the manufacture of goods and commerce, but London was far away and the colonists often winked at the laws and continued to bring in and sell what they wished. Taxes were also evaded and some colonists continued to trade with Britain's enemies.

Long before 1763 the colonists had been accustomed to enjoying a large measure of

self-government. In Virginia as early as 1619 representatives met with the governor and his council in a little log church to consider matters of importance to the colony. That was the first representative assembly in the New World. As other colonies were settled, they, too, had assemblies chosen by the people. In all of the colonies, matters of local interest, like raising money to build a road or a school, were decided by the people of the locality. And so the people in America had not only grown away from the English way of doing things, but they got experience in governing themselves.

### ENGLAND CHANGES HER COLONIAL POLICY

**The New Policy** The Treaty of Paris of 1763 marked a turning point in the relations between England and her American colonies. Her old lenient policy gave way to a much stricter one, and the colonies, having been used to doing much as they pleased, resented the change.

The Seven Years' War, known in America as the French and Indian War, had been costly for England. She had saved the colonies from the French and now asked why the colonies should not help pay the bill. The colonists answered that colonial armies had helped in winning the war in America and so the wars had been financed by the colonies to some extent.

Other differences developed between the mother country and the colonies. The settlers had started moving into the lands across the Appalachian Mountains, lately won from the French. Great Britain was eager, however, to avoid trouble with the Indians of the Ohio Valley, and so she issued the Proclamation of 1763. This forbade settlers to migrate into the Western lands.

The settlers, having fought for those lands, were in no mood to obey the Proclamation, and continued to move west.

### Policies Resented by Colonists

When George III became king in 1760 he wanted to rule like the monarchs on the continent of Europe. He was determined to enforce the laws that had been passed regulating the commerce of the colonies. A series of Navigation Acts had been passed placing taxes on certain commodities imported by the colonies and forbidding the colonies to trade with countries other than England. These acts were to be enforced now by agents sent to the colonies to collect the duties. Moreover, an army was placed in America, said King George, to protect the colonists. But the colonists felt able to protect themselves and feared that the real purpose of the army in their midst was to back up the British tax collectors rather than to protect the Americans against the Indians or a foreign power.

One of the most hated laws under the new policy permitted English officers to use general warrants called *writs of assistance* to search the homes of any suspected smugglers. A storm of protest was raised against such a practice. The colonists felt this was a violation of their basic rights as Englishmen.

Another law permitted English officers accused of crime in the New World to be sent to England for trial. That, said the colonists, was the same as acquitting the criminals, for the British courts would favor the officers.

The colonists were most outspoken in their differences with the English over taxation. In reality the difference was not so much over the size of the taxes, for they were not high, as over the idea of representation in Parliament. According to the



Courtesy Twentieth Century-Fox

*William Pitt the Younger spoke in the English Parliament many times in favor of the American cause.*

British view, each member of Parliament represented all the people of the empire. Therefore, they had a right to tax them all. The colonists, on the other hand, believed that there should be representatives from the colony in the body that taxed them. Each side stood firm in its ideas on the question. Of course the colonies did not want to send representatives to the British Parliament; that would not have been practical. What they wanted was the power to tax themselves in their own assemblies.

The point of view of the king and Parliament angered the colonists. The two sides were not so far apart but that their differences could have been settled by wisdom on the part of Parliament and the king. There were few members in Parliament, though, who were willing or able to see the American point of view. Parliament and the king saw only that Britain was trying to weld together an empire by an over-all plan in





Bertmann Archhe

*Benjamin Franklin, through his simple charm, fascinated the French. He made American liberty fashionable in Paris, where ladies wore their hair à la Bostonienne or à la Philadelphie, and the men wore Quaker hats.*

which each colony was to contribute what it was best able to contribute. For instance, the American colonies would produce masts for ships, tobacco, hemp, and indigo, while Ireland would make linens and the British make the manufactured goods. Such a plan, they thought, would strengthen the whole empire. The American colonists were not interested in an over-all plan; they were concerned only with the effect upon themselves. The British policy hurt them economically and injured their pride in their ability to rule and protect themselves.

1. Why did the colonists grow away from their allegiance to Britain?
2. What had been the policy of the British toward the colonists before 1763?
3. In what ways did Britain change her policies toward the colonists after 1763?

## THE COLONISTS REBEL AGAINST THE MOTHER COUNTRY

The differences between the mother country and the colonies in America

brought matters to a climax. War broke out at Concord and Lexington, Massachusetts, on April 19, 1775. At first the colonists insisted that they were fighting for their rights as Englishmen. Certain men, like Samuel Adams of Massachusetts, however, kept the issue of independence before the people, and Thomas Paine, who had come to America from England, wrote an influential pamphlet, *Common Sense*, in which he pointed out that the colonists were inconsistent in claiming allegiance to Great Britain when, at the same time, they were fighting her.

**Fighting for Freedom** At last, on July 4, 1776, the Continental Congress, meeting in Philadelphia, adopted the Declaration of Independence. Thomas Jefferson did the actual writing, and it was evident that he had been influenced by his reading of the English and French reformers, John Locke and Baron de Montesquieu (mōn tēs kyū'). The Declaration had a two-fold importance. First, it established a basic principle for government by stating

that "governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the consent of the governed." Second, new zeal was put into the conflict when it was decided that the colonies were to be free.

The English did not prosecute the war with great vigor. For one thing, some of the leaders in Parliament, like Edmund Burke and William Pitt, thought the colonists were right in the controversy. George Washington showed great skill as commander-in-chief of the colonial armies. While the poorly equipped and meagerly clad American forces were frequently defeated in battle, they always managed to come back again.

Benjamin Franklin of Pennsylvania was sent to France to secure aid for the colonies. France not only gave financial help but declared war on England and fought on the side of the colonists. The French were still stinging from the great loss of their New World empire to the British in 1763. Here was an opportunity, they hoped, to regain their prestige and perhaps some possessions. The Spaniards and Dutch, too, remembered their losses to England and joined in the coalition against the British.

The war dragged on, the colonists losing most of the key cities along the seaboard but winning whenever they met the British in the "back country." When the colonists won the decisive Battle of Yorktown in 1781, the British decided to come to terms. A treaty was signed in Paris (1783) giving independence to the colonies. They got all the land as far west as the Mississippi River. The northern and southern boundaries were disputed and had to be settled later. Spain received Florida, and France regained some small islands lost in 1763. The Dutch gained no territory. America's European allies thus got very little out of the war, but Eng-

land was defeated and the colonists avenged for what they had suffered at her hands.

**The American Experiment in Government** The colonies then faced the difficult task of establishing a government. At first the thirteen independent states were only loosely bound together under a constitution known as the *Articles of Confederation*. It was not until 1789 that a closer union under the present Constitution was made. Then George Washington was elected President of the new Republic. A great experiment was under way. Could a nation rule itself without a king and nobles to guide it?

**Effects of the American Revolution** The loss of the American colonies was a blow to the mercantile theory of trade under which the nations of Europe had been administering their colonies. According to this theory that country was richest which had the most money in gold and silver. If a country sold more than it imported, it would have this surplus gold and silver. Since all countries wanted to do this, there was rivalry among them, and many of the wars between 1500 and 1800 were at least in part a result of mercantilism. Colonies, too, had an important function in the theory. They could be forced to buy the manufactured goods of the mother country. At the same time their raw materials were sold to the mother country at her price, which, of course, was low. In this way the mother country could get her desired surplus in gold and silver. Britain lost the American colonies largely because she was applying the mercantile theory in her dealings with them. The American Revolution caused many persons to doubt that colonies could be developed and held in-



*The American Declaration of Independence was head-line news in Europe, where fires of liberty were smoldering.*

4. What were the provisions of the Treaty of Paris of 1783?
5. What was the first Constitution of the United States?
6. In what year was the present Constitution put into effect?
7. What was the mercantile theory of trade and how was it affected by the American Revolution?

## THE OLD REGIME IN FRANCE STIRS DISCONTENT

One year before the battle of Concord and Lexington, a young man, twenty years old, came to the throne of France. Louis XVI (1774-1793) inherited a kingdom that was still doing business under the Old Regime, or old system, which had not changed for generations. The Old Regime was bad, and nearly everyone, from the king down to the humblest peasant, knew that changes were needed. France was not only on the verge of bankruptcy but also very disorganized. When the rulers of the Late Middle Ages had added land to their kingdom, they had not bothered to change the laws to correspond with those of the rest of France. The kings were satisfied if the new province recognized the king's authority and paid the taxes that he demanded. As a result, France was a hodge-podge of states with different customs, laws, and historical backgrounds.

definitely for the benefit of the mother country. The wisdom of such action was questioned still more when the trade between the British and the independent United States turned out to be greater than that with the colonies had been.

The success of the American Revolution had an effect of world-wide importance. The doctrines of the Declaration of Independence were widely studied. Philosophers and reformers had advocated equality of all men and the theory of government by the consent of the governed. On the continent of Europe, however, absolute monarchs, a leisure class of nobles, unequal economic, social, and political rights still prevailed. But the people in Europe were watching with interest the progress of the American experiment in government.

1. What part did each of the following men play in the American Revolution: Samuel Adams, Thomas Paine, George Washington, Benjamin Franklin, William Pitt, and Edmund Burke?
2. What effects did the Declaration of Independence have upon American colonists?
3. Which countries helped the United States and why did they give aid?

**Class Distinctions** France also had sharp class distinctions. The population was divided into three estates, or classes.

The *First Estate* was made up of the higher clergy, the archbishops, bishops, and abbots, who ruled the Church in France and who had great influence in government. They enjoyed the great wealth of the



Church, which held about one fifth of the land of France and had the right to collect a tax, called a tithe, from the people. The clergy, at the same time, were exempt from taxes imposed by the government. The Church still controlled education in France, and it cared for the sick and the poor.

The nobles, or *Second Estate*, were also privileged. They still maintained many of their ancient rights. Their privileges differed in different provinces, but all of them were exempt from most of the tax burden. In some places they still had the right to part of the crops raised by the peasants. Often the only oven, mill, and wine press were owned by the lord. In that case the peasants gave the lord part of the bread, flour, and wine that they made. The lords still had the right to hunt where they pleased, even when it meant ruining the crops of the peasants. Moreover, the peasants were not permitted to kill the deer, rabbits, pigeons, and other animals that lived off their crops. All of these privileges had originated in the Middle Ages and were so well-established that it was hard to take them away.

While the clergy and nobles enjoyed special rights and had every reason to be happy with their station in life, the *Third Estate* was discontented. This group made up the vast majority of the population of France. The French peasants were better off than those of Spain or Germany, who were still serfs. In fact, some French peasants were intelligent enough to understand the injustices of the system under which they lived, and they wanted them removed. Some of them had heard of the ideas of men like Rousseau, Montesquieu, and Voltaire. They knew, too, that the American colonists had been able to throw off the British rule that they did not like.

**Louis XVI** This, then, was the French nation over which Louis XVI was born to rule. He was a well-meaning man, but poorly educated for his position. He would have liked to improve conditions in France, but he did not have the will power to carry out reforms because the reforms would have been unpopular with the courtiers with whom he associated. Also, he believed in the divine right of kings.



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Among the many taxes levied in France was the head tax, paid by all the people.

A French cartoon of 1789 portrays the common man in chains, carrying the nobles and clergy on his back.

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Louis was married to Marie Antoinette, the beautiful daughter of Maria Theresa of Austria. Their marriage had been a political one, arranged by the French government in order to keep the alliance with Austria, but a marriage with the daughter of an Austrian king was unpopular with the people of France. Besides, Marie Antoinette was a very frivolous woman. She had no thought for anyone but herself and her pleasures. She was ignorant of the condition of the poor and had no interest in them. Louis and Marie Antoinette could hardly have been more unsuited for solving the problems that faced France.

### Attempts to Solve France's Financial Problems

The most immediate problem facing Louis was the reform of the finances of the country. Louis appointed one man after another to be in charge of the French treasury, hoping with each appointment that the new man would be able to perform the miracle of balancing the budget without cutting down expenses or imposing new taxes. But the appointees knew that there must be econ-

omies in the king's court, where money was spent lavishly. Much of the failure was due to the queen, who pouted if a finance minister attempted to make reforms that might dull the lustre of court life.

Finally Louis, as a last resort, agreed to call the representatives of the people together to decide what to do. It had been one hundred seventy-five years since the Estates General had met and very little was known about what it had been like. But in 1789 nearly six million persons went hopefully to the polls to vote in the first election they had ever had. The king did not expect or want reform; he simply wanted to fill his empty treasury.

### THE NATIONAL ASSEMBLY TAKES OVER THE GOVERNMENT OF FRANCE

When the Estates-General met in 1789 it was made up of three different houses, the First Estate, the Second Estate, and the Third Estate. In the past the Estates had met separately, and since each Estate voted as a unit, the first two Estates could outvote the

*The National Assembly, shut out of their assembly room, met in an indoor tennis court, where they vowed "to come together wherever circumstances may dictate, until the constitution of the kingdom shall be established."*

Ewing Galloway





Third. The Third Estate counted many lawyers among its members, but none of its members had had any parliamentary experience. They wrangled over small matters and general disorder prevailed at the meetings. The members of the Third Estate agreed at least upon one thing. They would have the three Estates sit as one house instead of sitting separately and voting as units. In that way they could hope to get a majority to favor their policies.

Since the king did not act on the matter, after six weeks of argument among themselves the Third Estate organized itself as a National Assembly and invited the clergy and nobles to join them. This was the first step in the French Revolution.

**Storming the Bastille** Louis was not in sympathy with the policies of the National Assembly. Following the advice of his courtiers, he called the royal guard to Paris. It seemed for a time that he would use them to disperse the National Assembly, but he hesitated to do this.

In the meantime, the mob of Paris, inspired by the revolutionary spirit, attacked the Bastille on July 14. The Bastille was an ancient fortress in Paris that had long been used to house political prisoners and was therefore in the eyes of the people a symbol of the Old Regime.

When the mob surged into the Bastille, they found only seven prisoners, who were freed amid great rejoicing. The anniversary of the storming of the Bastille has been celebrated ever since as the chief national holiday of France. Its destruction symbolized the destruction of the Old Regime in France.

**Reforms of the National Assembly** The National Assembly set



Culver Service

*July 14 came to mean for France about what July 4 means to America—the day of rebellion against tyranny.*

about reforming the French government. The first important step it took was the abolition of all remnants of feudalism and serfdom. The nobles sanctioned this reform because they were afraid of the peasants. The centuries-old right of the Church to impose the tithe was ended. The National Assembly went farther and confiscated the property of the Church and reduced the number of the clergy. They were made officers of the state, paid by the state, and elected to their offices by the people. Many clergy refused to accept such a radical change and fled from the country. The National Assembly ended local differences in laws and put all Frenchmen under the same law. The old provinces were abolished and France was divided into *departments*, small enough to be easily administered. Thus the National Assembly drastically changed the government and social conditions in France.

**Declaration of the Rights of Man** In 1789 the National Assembly also issued the *Declaration of the Rights of*



*Man*. This Declaration contained many of the ideas of the French reformers and showed the influence of the American Declaration of Independence. The French Declaration was one of the most important documents ever issued in Europe. It served as a model for succeeding French governments as well as for governments of other European countries. Each article in it was designed to wipe out forever some abuse from which the French people had been suffering for generations.

### **The King Escorted to Paris**

The king hesitated to sign the Declaration and it was rumored that Louis was going to bring an army to Paris to end the revolution and restore the Old Regime. Besides, there was a shortage of food in Paris. On October 5, 1789, a crowd from Paris, followed by the newly established National Guard, walked out to Versailles. They demanded that the king return with them to Paris. He had no choice in the matter and so, wearing the cockade, the three-cornered hat of the Revolution, Louis, the queen, and their son came to Paris, escorted by the mob. The National Assembly followed the king and continued to function in Paris.

**Constitution of 1791** Finally, in 1791, the National Assembly completed a constitution for France. This first constitution is known as the Constitution of 1791. While it seemed almost radical in its day, it was not really very democratic. By it the king was retained, but he lost much of his power. The legislature of one house, known as the Legislative Assembly, was to be elected indirectly to make the laws. Only citizens who paid taxes could vote, and only landowners could hold office. This was the first written constitu-

tion, not only in France but on the continent of Europe.

The king continued to waver in his loyalties. When he was with the leaders of the Revolution, he promised to accept their policies. When he was with the queen and his courtiers, he promised them to try to put down the Revolution. After he had accepted the constitution, he attempted to flee to Austria, but he and the queen were caught near the border and brought back to Paris in disgrace.

**Achievements of the National Assembly** When the National Assembly turned over the rule of France to the government under the Constitution of 1791 it could look back on many achievements. The country had the *Declaration of the Rights of Man* and a written constitution. The Old Regime with its touches of feudalism, its lack of organization, and its special privileges for the Church and nobility had been swept away. France had changed from an absolute monarchy to a monarchy operating under a constitution. The first phase of the French Revolution was over. The leaders so far had been men of the middle class who did not want violence, but reform. They hoped to make the French government like that of England, a limited monarchy. Radicals in the middle class were growing in numbers and in boldness, though, and the attempted flight of the king did not strengthen the position of those who hoped for moderate reform.

1. What conditions of the Old Regime caused the French Revolution?
2. Why was Louis XVI not a good king? Why was his wife unpopular?
3. Why did Louis call the Estates-General?

4. What events led to the Tennis Court Oath? What was that oath? (See picture, page 314.)
5. Why did the mob of Paris destroy the Bastille? When?
6. List the reforms of the National Assembly.
7. What was the Declaration of the Rights of Man?
8. What were the chief provisions of the Constitution of 1791?
9. Why did loyalty to the king wane in 1791?

## THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY GOVERNS FRANCE (1791-1792)

### Internal Divisions in France

The Legislative Assembly set up by the Constitution of 1791 to rule France consisted entirely of inexperienced men who knew little about running a government. They found the country badly divided. Some persons thought that too many changes had been made, while others believed that there had not been enough. Many thought that the king should be deposed. Many of the *émigrés* (persons who had fled from France) were seeking aid from Austria and some of the German states to restore the Old Regime in France. Most of the peasants were very religious and opposed the changes made in the Church and government. In Paris, clubs arose to discuss the situation as they met in the cafés of the city. The most important of these was the Jacobin (*jăk'ô bin*) Club led by Maximilian Robespierre (*rô bĕs pyâr'*). In the Legislative Assembly, too, there were political parties that took sides on questions.

**Foreign Wars** Some foreigners had watched the French Revolution with eagerness; others were fearful. Many liberals in the United States and England had hailed the Declaration of the Rights of

Man and the destruction of the Bastille; but from the beginning the rulers on the Continent looked with disfavor upon the events in France. They feared that the revolutionary movement would spread into their countries, and they declared that order must be restored in France. They stationed troops on the borders of France and when the French government demanded their removal, the order was ignored. Then the French revolutionary government recruited an army to defend the country. Men came with enthusiasm singing a new song which came to be the French national hymn, the *Marseillaise*. Young Frenchmen were fired with zeal for the Revolution and for France. They adopted the slogan, *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity*. Thus France became involved in foreign wars when divided at home.



*A Jacobin Club.*

### End of the Limited Monarchy

The French armies were poorly trained and poorly equipped and they met with defeat. The people blamed their lack of success on the king and queen. The word was spread around that the king and queen were negotiating with the enemy to restore absolute monarchy in the country. One general of an invading army announced that the armies would restore the king to his former power and prestige and threatened Paris if

the people dared to harm the king. This angered the French people. The Legislative Assembly therefore imprisoned the king and ordered an election for delegates to a National Convention that would draw up a new constitution.

## THE NATIONAL CONVENTION CONDUCTS A REIGN OF TERROR

The National Convention was composed of different parties. The *Girondists* (gî rôn'dists), who objected to the excesses of the French Revolution, sat on the right. The *Mountain* was the name given to the radicals who sat high up on the left side of the hall. Between the two was the *Plain*, made up of all groups whose ideas lay between the two extremes. There was bitter feeling in the Convention between the Girondists and the Mountain, and finally the former were driven out.

**First French Republic** The National Convention took over the government of France. In September, 1792, it declared France a Republic. Louis XVI was tried, and in January, 1793, he was beheaded in the public square of Paris for treason.

**Reign of Terror** The Convention found its tasks too great for it. Therefore, in April, 1793, it gave the *Committee of Public Safety* authority over the internal affairs of France. Robespierre became the leading figure on the committee. It would have been hard to find a more ruthless man. The Committee set about to rid France of all suspected enemies. As a result of trials that were a mere mockery, thousands of nobles, clergy, and other persons who objected to their ruthless measures

were sent to the guillotine. Among those put to death was Queen Marie Antoinette, the "*Austrian woman*," as she was called. Finally, Robespierre's enemies in the Convention, fearing for their own lives, seized him and hurried him to the guillotine. For a hundred days he had been a virtual dictator of France. That period of French history is well-named the Reign of Terror, but the death of Robespierre brought an end to the bloodshed at home.

**Coalition of Powers** With equal vigor the Convention had pressed against France's enemies from without. A coalition of powers had formed against her. It consisted of Austria, Britain, Prussia, Holland, Spain, and Sardinia. Soon a number of young and enthusiastic generals were able to defeat them and drive them out of France.



**"Liberty, Equality, Fraternity"**  
Let us see what had happened in France since that fateful day six years before when the Bastille was stormed. The remnants of feudalism were gone. The theory was established in France that governments derive their authority from the governed. All citizens came to be recognized as equal before the law. The Church lost its vast holdings



and great influence in the government. Land was confiscated from the Church and the nobles and distributed among the peasants and bourgeoisie.

Frenchmen had summed up the meaning of the French Revolution in their slogan, *Liberty, Equality, Fraternity*. To them *liberty* meant the gaining of personal rights. Among these were the right to own property, to work where they wished, to worship as they pleased, and to speak and write what they chose. *Equality* meant the abolition of all elements of feudalism and serfdom and the granting of equal rights before the law for all people. *Fraternity* meant the brotherhood of all Frenchmen, reflecting the spirit of nationalism that the Revolution had aroused in France.

1. What were the conditions in France when the Legislative Assembly came to power?
2. What was the Jacobin Club?
3. How did France become embroiled in wars with her neighbors?
4. What was the origin of the Marseillaise?
5. Why did the Legislative Assembly call for a new election?
6. What were the Mountain, the Girondists, and the Plain?
7. What was the Reign of Terror? Who was its leader?
8. What countries were members of the coalition against France?
9. List the permanent gains made by the French Revolution.
10. What did the slogan of the French Revolution mean?

### THE DIRECTORY (1795-1799) GIVES WAY TO NAPOLEON

The National Convention drew up a new constitution that provided for a representa-

tive assembly of two bodies and a five-man executive committee, called the Directory. The legislature chose the Directory. From the beginning, the Directory was unpopular. Most of the men who served on it were weak or corrupt or both. The government did not solve the serious problem of unemployment in France, either, and the common people resented the fact that they could not vote.

**Napoleon Bonaparte** In trying to find an efficient military leader to continue the wars against France's enemies, the Directory picked a young man from Corsica to head a French army. This man was Napoleon Bonaparte. Napoleon had been sent to Brienne as a youth to study at a military academy. There he had demonstrated that he had a remarkable mind, able to

*Napoleon's army was often poorly equipped, but his men were fanatically loyal to him.*

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*As Emperor, Napoleon became increasingly tyrannical. He censored the press and set himself up as supreme ruler.*

**The Renewal of War** The peace of 1802 was short-lived. In 1805 Napoleon had an army and some warships in the ports of France and Belgium waiting an opportunity to invade England. But to the waiting men there came one day the proclamation, "Brave soldiers, you will not go to England. English gold has seduced the Austrian Emperor and he has declared war on France." The Third Coalition of England, Russia, and Austria had been formed against Napoleon. He turned eastward, winning a series of spectacular victories. Austria had to sue for peace, and Russia joined in a treaty also. To his soldiers Napoleon proclaimed, "You have covered yourselves with eternal glory."

### **Napoleon, the Master of Europe**

In 1810 Napoleon reached the height of his power. He ruled all of Western Europe except England, and his control extended eastward to Russia and Austria. He was so powerful that the Emperor of Austria was willing to give him his daughter, Maria Louisa, in marriage. Napoleon hoped that such a

marriage would cement good relations with Austria and prevent further trouble from that quarter. Consequently, Napoleon divorced his wife and married the Austrian princess. Now this young man, unknown a dozen years before, had become master of the Continent and was married into the oldest and proudest ruling family of Europe.

**British Opposition** Only Britain held out against Napoleon. She was able to do so because she controlled the seas. In 1805, while Napoleon had been winning victories on land, Nelson had wiped out the French fleet at the famous Battle of Trafalgar off the coast of Spain. Still Napoleon hoped that by setting up his "continental system" forbidding all countries on the Continent to trade with Great Britain he could starve out the island and bring her to her knees. With Napoleon's small fleet, his blockade was not a success, and Britain remained a threat to his plans.

**The Invasion of Russia** In the meantime, the young Russian Tsar was growing restless. He wanted to add territory to Russia and Napoleon was in his way. Russia had not observed the blockade very well, either. In 1812, Napoleon, against the advice of his counselors, invaded Russia with a large army. The Russians retreated before him, destroying everything as they went. When Napoleon reached Moscow he realized that he had an empty victory. There was nothing for Napoleon to do but return to France. He was too far from his base to get supplies for further war, and the retreating Russians had destroyed whatever equipment they could not take with them. Even the city of Moscow had been burned. By the time Napoleon started home, winter had set in. During the return



his soldiers died from starvation, cold, and the bullets of Russian snipers who followed closely behind the retreating army. The Russian winter, Russian vastness, and the "scorched earth" policy had defeated Napoleon and he had lost nearly half a million men. However, despite this terrible defeat and his inability to crush Britain, France had not lost faith in him.

## THE STRENGTH AND WEAKNESS OF NAPOLEON

Napoleon was imbued with the idea of his own importance and power and he was able to make others believe in him. Napoleon's ambitions were great; France was not enough for him. Speaking to a friend, he said: "Can I help it if a great destiny drives me on to become the dictator of the world? . . . I mean to end what I have begun. . . . I shall fuse all the nations into one. This is the only solution that will satisfy me."

Napoleon did not achieve the ends for which he fought, but he did succeed in wiping away much that was outworn in Europe. He abolished feudalism wherever he conquered. He destroyed law systems that did not meet the needs of the time. He carried many of the fruits of the French Revolution, with its doctrine of liberty, equality, and fraternity, into the rest of Europe. He abolished the Holy Roman Empire in 1806 and in its place united the southern German states into the Confederation of the Rhine, making it entirely independent of Austria.

Like all dictators, Napoleon spent the blood of his country, and in the end he failed. But the spirit of nationalism which the French Revolution had raised to a high point in France was contagious. Napoleon imbued the countries which he over-



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*Leaving his suffering and dying troops in Russia, Napoleon rushed back to France, to meet his final defeat.*

ran with that spirit and it acted as a boomerang. The conquered nations did not want to be under foreign rule.

After Napoleon's return from Russia he had trouble with many of the puppet "nations" he had set up in Western Europe. Besides, he was never able to conquer his old enemies, Great Britain and Russia. All combined into a final coalition that was able to defeat him. He was exiled to a little "empire" on the island of Elba, where he was permitted to keep his title of Emperor and was given a handsome yearly income.

While the diplomats were in Vienna trying to put the pieces of Europe together again, Napoleon managed to escape and return to France. There his troops welcomed him and came flocking to his army. For one hundred days he stayed in France until his enemies recovered from their amazement and marched against him. The end came in 1815 when the Duke of Wellington of England, on June 18, defeated him at the Battle of Waterloo in Belgium. The amazing little general was pronounced "a disturber of the tranquillity



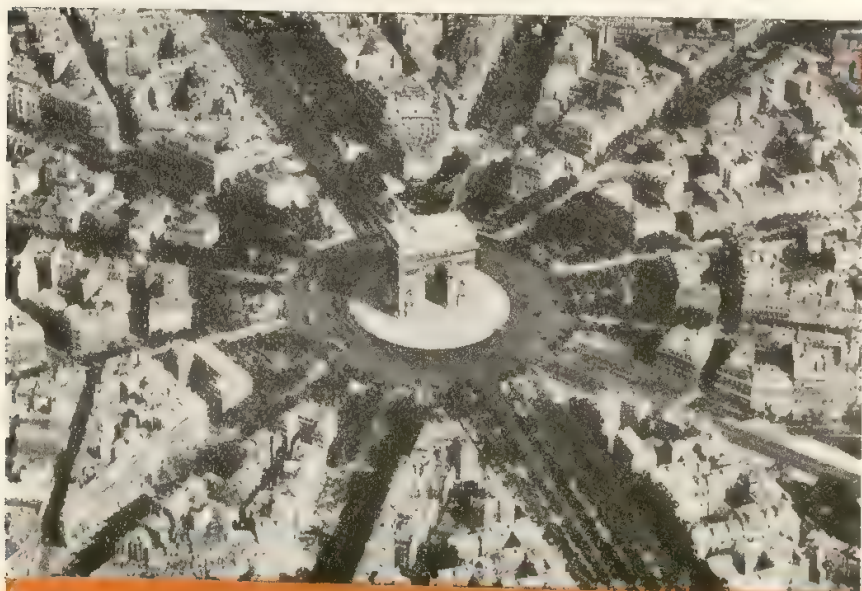
of the world" and was sent to the island of St. Helena in the South Atlantic. There he was under the more watchful eye of the guards of a British garrison for six years. He died at the age of fifty-one.

Why had Napoleon gained such honors and power in France? What had he done for her? In the first place, for nearly twenty years he had made France a powerful nation to be respected and feared by her neighbors. Despite the bloodshed and suffering which came from his foreign wars, Napoleon brought some permanent benefits to France. He gave France a code of laws. There had been no uniform system for the country and the laws were hopelessly confused. He took what was best in them and made a code that was simple in form and uniform for all of France. It was considered the best system of laws of its day. The confusion in the financial system had been largely responsible for the Revolution of 1789. Napoleon gave France sound money and established the Bank of France, which served the nation well. He put into effect at home measures of economy and a better system of taxation.

Moreover, the national debt was small because a large part of the war costs had been paid by the conquered countries. Also, relations with the Church became more friendly. He made an agreement with the Pope, known as the Concordat of 1801, which recognized the Pope as the head of the Church in France. This made Napoleon popular with the peasant population.

Napoleon established what was for his day an elaborate system of education, from primary schools to the University of Paris and including special schools to train teachers. Although these schools served Napoleon the useful purpose of teaching the people to revere him, they also provided education. Napoleon centralized the government of France, but he maintained equal rights for all people.

Besides these reforms, Napoleon made many internal improvements. He had military roads built running from Paris to the borders of the country. Bridges and canals were built, swamps were drained, and harbors were improved. Paris was beautified by fine buildings and arches and



*Napoleon started the building of the Arc de Triomphe, a huge stone arch across the beautiful Avenue des Champs Élysées. A system of boulevards, in ever-widening rings, built on the sites of ancient city walls, is part of the unusual design of Paris.*

Ewing Galloway

streets and boulevards. Napoleon adopted many of the social gains made for France by the Revolution. All of these achievements brought Napoleon popularity and prestige.

1. What office did Napoleon receive in 1802? in 1804?
2. What evidences were there that Napoleon was really popular in France?
3. Why did Napoleon marry Maria Louisa?
4. Tell the story of his Russian campaign.
5. What was Napoleon's aim in life?
6. How did the ideas of the French Revolution contribute to Napoleon's defeat?
7. What changes did Napoleon make outside of France?
8. What happened to Napoleon after his first defeat? What were the Hundred Days?
9. Who was the Duke of Wellington? What happened to Napoleon after Waterloo?
10. List the permanent benefits to France from Napoleon's rule.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why was it not practical for the colonists in 1770 to send representatives to the British Parliament?
2. What evidence is there that the spirit of nationalism is a force in the world today?
3. Was there any justification for the mercantile theory of trade? Explain.
4. Is mercantilism practiced today?
5. In what sense might the American Revolution be called a continuation of the struggle of the British for more rights under the Stuarts?
6. Why was the French Revolution more violent than the American Revolution?
7. Was it good in the long run that the French Revolution occurred despite the violence that accompanied it?
8. What was the origin of "left" and "right" in politics? What do these terms mean today?

9. Why did Napoleon not let the Pope place the crown on his head?

10. Despite the fact that Britain is an island, it has always been concerned with activities on the continent of Europe. Why?

11. Were the nations correct in calling Napoleon a "disturber of the tranquillity of the world"?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

Articles of Confederation • Bastille Day • coalition • cockade • Committee of Public Safety • departments • Directory • émigrés • Girondists • Jacobins • Liberty, Equality, Fraternity • The Mountain • National Assembly • Concordat of 1801 • Confederation of the Rhine • Continental Congress • Continental System • Convention • nationalism • Old Regime • The Plain • plebiscite • Proclamation of 1763 • puppet state • Reign of Terror • republic • coup d'état • Declaration of Independence • Declaration of the Rights of Man • "scorched earth" policy • National Convention • Third Estate • Treaty of Paris (1763) • Treaty of Paris (1783) • writs of assistance •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

1619 • 1763 • April 19, 1775 • July 4, 1776 • 1783 • July 14, 1789 • 1792 • 1804 • June 18, 1815 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

Appalachian Mountains • Austria • Concord • Corsica • Egypt • Elba • Florida • France • Germany • Haiti • Holland • Holy Roman Empire • Ireland • Lexington • Louisiana Territory • Moscow • Ohio River • Paris • Prussia • Rocky Mountains • Russia • Sardinia • Spain • St. Helena • Trafalgar • Vienna • Show the line of the Proclamation of 1763.

Show the territory the United States obtained when it purchased Louisiana.

**4. Can you identify these persons?**

• Samuel Adams • Edmund Burke • Benjamin Franklin • George III • Thomas Jefferson • Louis XVI • Maria Louisa • Marie Antoinette • Maria Theresa • Montesquieu • Napoleon I • Horatio Nelson • Thomas Paine • William Pitt • Robespierre • Rousseau • Adam Smith • Voltaire • George Washington • the Duke of Wellington •

**II. Can You Express Yourself Well?**

**1.** Select one of the following topics for a special oral report to the class:

- a. The events that Tchaikowsky commemorated in his 1812 *Overture* (If possible play a recording of it for the class.)
- b. The story of the Louisiana Purchase
- c. The secret of Napoleon's rise to power
- d. The Duke of Wellington
- e. Marie Antoinette
- f. Lord Nelson, Britain's greatest admiral
- g. "The many-sided Franklin"
- h. George Washington, country gentleman

**2.** Imagine yourself a reporter at the Battle of Waterloo. Write a dispatch of two hundred words for your paper. What headlines would you have had for your story?

**3.** Write some headlines that might have appeared in the American newspapers during the French Revolution. Display the best ones on the bulletin board.

**III. For the Blackboard**

**1.** Working together in class read the Declaration of Independence and let one pupil list on the blackboard the grievances of the American colonies against Great Britain as given there. As you do so, discuss the reasons why the colonies objected to each item on the list.

**2.** Rule three columns on the blackboard. In the first, copy the items listed below. In the second column write briefly the conditions re-

garding each of those items as they existed in the days of Louis XIV. In the third column list the conditions regarding each item as they existed after the French Revolution:

feudal dues • taxes • right to own property • religious liberty • freedom of speech and press • the states that composed France •

**3.** In parallel columns list the good and bad results to Europe of Napoleon's rule in France.

**IV. History Related to Art**

The events and personalities of the American Revolution were pictured by the famous artists John Trumbull and Gilbert Stuart. Appoint a committee to prepare and display prints of as many of their paintings as they can find. Discuss them in class.

**V. An Assembly Program**

Prepare an assembly program based on the general theme of the American fight for freedom. The class can be divided into committees, each responsible for one scene under the direction of the teacher. Here are a few suggestions, but you may use other episodes:

- a. Samuel Adams giving a heated speech to a group of colonists, some of whom were his followers and some not.
- b. The scene of Washington and his army at Valley Forge.
- c. A group of Loyalists preparing to flee to Canada.
- d. The meeting of a colonial assembly to discuss the Declaration of Independence.
- e. Jefferson and his committee presenting the Declaration of Independence to the Second Continental Congress.
- f. A leader or hero in the American Revolution who lived in your section of the country.
- g. The surrender of Cornwallis.
- h. One of the following Europeans who aided the colonists in the American Revolution:  
• Lafayette • von Steuben • Kosciusko • Pulaski •





27

## A Meeting in Vienna Turns the Clock Back

While Napoleon was still on the island of Elba, the leaders of the countries of Europe met at Vienna (1814-1815) to restore order after the widespread upheaval caused by the French Revolution and the Napoleonic Wars. These leaders had grave questions to decide, for Europe was in turmoil after twenty-five years of almost constant conflict. The old regimes had been destroyed by Napoleon and he had set up his puppets to rule. Now, without his backing, his puppets could not maintain their positions. This left to be de-

cided the question of the form of government of most of Western Europe.

Napoleon had also changed the boundaries between many of the states of Europe. Kings, claiming the right to rule, were eager to adjust these to their advantage.

Misery faced Europe at every turn. The armies had left widespread destruction behind them. Poverty followed in the wake of the destruction. Disease ravaged the people. There were many and varied problems for the meeting in Vienna. Their solutions called for courage and wisdom.

*The Emperor of Austria spent a quarter of a million dollars a day for entertainment during the Congress of Vienna. The city was a gay place, and members of the Congress liked to hunt, dance, and feast.*

Bettmann Archive





Bettmann Archive

*This group of statesmen had an opportunity such as men seldom have for setting things right, but they made selfish decisions. Metternich, known as "the evil genius of Europe," is standing before his chair at the left.*

## THE CONGRESS OF VIENNA

Let us look at the men gathered for this important task. The most influential figure was Count von Metternich (mēt'ēr nīk), the chief minister of Austria. He was interested chiefly in keeping the Hapsburgs in power and preventing any liberal ideas from swaying the Congress. Then there was Tsar Alexander I (1801-1825) of Russia. He was an idealist who, however, had an eager eye on Poland. Britain sent the Duke of Wellington to the Congress, for to him was given credit for defeating Napoleon at Waterloo. Britain also sent Lord Castlereagh, who favored a moderate policy towards France and a balance of power among the nations on the Continent. Ever since the days of Henry VIII England had been trying to maintain this balance of power, that is, to prevent one nation on the Continent from getting enough power to threaten Britain's security. Castlereagh was at Vienna to see that that balance was kept.

From Prussia came the dull King Frederick William III (1797-1840). Even France was not denied a delegate. Her representative was Prince Talleyrand, one of the most capable and cunning diplomats of the nineteenth century. Besides this brilliant assembly of kings and noblemen, there were representatives of the governments of Sweden, Portugal, and Spain. There were no representatives of the common people. This was a conference of royalty and nobility. No one was there to speak for the peasants and workers who had suffered so much. Nor was there anyone to speak for the middle-class business men and merchants who had lost so much by the war.

**Legitimacy, Compensation, and Guarantees** From such a group of privileged men, who wanted to keep their positions and their power, little that was radically different could be expected. They had three watchwords, *legitimacy, compen-*



sation, and guarantees. By legitimacy they meant that the rightful, or legitimate, dynasties that had been in power before the French Revolution should be restored to power so far as possible. By compensation they meant that those rulers or countries that had been injured by the years of turmoil or by the decisions of this Congress should be compensated for their losses. Guarantees were to be made to the neighbors of France to prevent her attacking them as she had been doing for nearly a quarter of a century. The Congress of Vienna was looking backward rather than forward, trying to restore Europe to what it had been before 1789. Talleyrand expressed the sentiments of most of the delegates when he said, "No one who has not lived before 1789 can know how pleasant life can be."

**Legitimacy** It was not difficult to restore or keep the old ruling families in power. Louis XVIII (1814-1824) and Ferdinand VII (1805-1833) of the Bourbon family were restored to France and Spain respectively. The autocratic rulers of the German states were restored and the rulers of the small Italian states got back their crowns. Francis I (1804-1835) remained Emperor of Austria, while George III was still king of Great Britain. Austria was again the leading influence in Italy, and Austria and Prussia dominated the German





states once more. The Holy Roman Empire was not re-established but a German Confederation of thirty-eight states was set up under the guidance of Austria. With these reactionary forces in power it was hoped that another revolution could be averted and Europe saved from war.

**Compensation** Each country that had fought against France during the Napoleonic Wars wanted to be compensated for something. This made it necessary to redraw the map of Europe. In doing so, little attention was paid to the nationality, religion, or language of the people concerned. Russia was given Finland and most of Prussia's part of Poland. Norway was taken from Denmark and given to Sweden. Prussia, to make up for the loss of part of Poland, got Swedish Pomerania, part of Saxony, and some territory on the Rhine. Hol-

*Talleyrand was never caught on the losing side. This cartoon of 1817 was called "The Man with Six Heads."*

Culver Service



land received Belgium from Austria, and Austria got the Tyrol and the two Italian states of Venetia and Lombardy. England did not get any land on the continent of Europe, but she did receive colonies. One was Malta in the Mediterranean Sea which served as a stopping place on her route to India. Another was Ceylon off the coast of India, which she received from the Dutch. The Cape of Good Hope was given to Britain, too, a foothold for her in South Africa. All these changes were not made without difficulties, but at last, in 1815, all the treaties had been signed.

**Guarantees** Two alliances were formed at Vienna. Tsar Alexander I proposed the *Holy Alliance*. Although the Prussian and Austrian rulers believed it was just a lot of nonsense, they signed it to satisfy him. Later, most of the rulers of Europe became members of the Holy Alliance. The signers agreed to let justice and Christian principles be their guide.

Not taking the Holy Alliance seriously, Metternich worked on what he considered a more practical plan. He obtained the signatures of Prussia, Great Britain, Russia, and Austria to the Quadruple Alliance. By this the four powers bound themselves to meet at intervals to discuss matters so that peace would be preserved. Europe had had enough of war; all classes of the population wanted peace. This was an effort on the part of the diplomats of Europe to enforce peace. The members of the Quadruple Alliance also pledged themselves to keeping the *status quo* in Europe. The *status quo* refers here to the peace settlement, which they thought should be permanent.

1. What were the conditions in Europe when the Congress of Vienna came together?

2. Who were the leading men at the Congress?
3. When was the Congress held?
4. What three principles did the Congress follow in settling the affairs of Europe?
5. What was the German Confederation?
6. What changes were made by the territorial settlements at the Congress of Vienna?
7. What was the Holy Alliance? Who sponsored it?
8. What was the Quadruple Alliance? Who was the originator of it?

#### A SERIES OF REVOLTS DISTURBS EUROPE

Scarcely had the Congress of Vienna concluded when there were rumblings of discontent. The kings and nobles who had met in Vienna had believed that they could "set the clock back" to the days before the French Revolution. They thought that they could restore the Old Regime, not only in France, but in all of Europe. They soon found that they could not wipe out the effects of twenty-five years of war and change. Europe was different from what it had been before the French Revolution.

The liberals had grown in numbers and they were dissatisfied with the reactionary rulers who had been returned to power. But by strictly policing Europe, the rulers were able to keep the liberal forces under control for a time. For instance, in the German States the Diet adopted a set of resolutions known as the Carlsbad Decrees. The Decrees provided that all college professors be supervised in their teaching and that all newspapers, magazines, and pamphlets must have the approval of the government before being published.

The Congress of Vienna had also failed to give heed to the spirit of nationalism that

had sprung up all over Europe in the wake of Napoleon's armies. Now this spirit began to be felt in most of Europe.

**Revolt of 1820-1821** The first open revolt was in Spain in 1820. Here the liberals compelled the king to recognize a constitution. The king appealed to the Quadruple Alliance for aid. France assumed the task of restoring the king and putting down the revolt. Safely back on the throne, the king disposed of the revolutionists by bloodthirsty means.

Other peoples were not frightened by the cruelties of the Spanish king, and the revolt spread to other countries. The people of the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies demanded a constitution, and in 1829 the Greeks gained independence from their Turkish rulers. Even though the rulers were trying to stamp them out, the spirits of liberalism and nationalism could not be killed.

**Revolutions of 1830** The Bourbons were restored to the throne of France, as we have seen, when the Congress of Vienna placed Louis XVIII on the throne. Louis was not an autocratic ruler like his brother, Louis XVI. According to a charter of 1814, he had ruled with the consent of a parliament. France was satisfied so long as Louis ruled, but in 1824 a third brother came to the throne as Charles X (1824-1830). He had been an active foe of the Revolution and now he tried to restore special privileges to the nobles and the clergy. When the Chamber of Deputies objected to his measures, he set aside the Charter of 1814 and attempted to rule as he pleased. This brought on an open revolt in which Charles was forced to abdicate and Louis Philippe, a distant cousin, became king (1830-1848).

The revolt against Charles X in 1830 touched off a series of revolts. Holland and Belgium, as you remember, had been united by the Congress of Vienna. This was one of those unions that showed the lack of wisdom on the part of the men at Vienna. The two countries were different in nationality, language, and religion. Moreover, the Dutch people had more power in the government than the Belgians had. In 1830 the Belgians revolted and set up an independent nation. The great powers looked with disfavor upon this, but there was not much that they could do. France had her hands full with her own revolution, and Austria was far away. At length the independence of the Belgians was accepted. They set up a constitutional monarchy similar to that of France under Louis Philippe.

The revolt spread to Poland, most of which had been given to Russia by the Congress of Vienna. The Polish situation was different from that of Belgium because it involved Russia, one of the great powers. The Poles received no help from their

neighbors, and though they fought hard, they were defeated. As a result, the Tsar made Poland a part of Russia. Hundreds of Poles were put to death and everything possible was done to wipe out all national spirit among them.

**Revolts of 1848** As in 1830, so in 1848 revolution started in France. Louis Philippe was supposed to have a constitutional monarchy. In fact he was called the "citizen king" at the time of his coronation, and at the ceremony he was crowned "by the grace of God" and "by the will of the nation." Yet as time passed, his government grew more and more reactionary, until by 1848 he had aroused much opposition to his rule. His opponents were very numerous. The king's chief minister was unpopular and the king had to dismiss him. A riot broke out in front of the home of the dismissed minister and the king's soldiers fired on the mob, killing twenty-three of them. The mobs grew so violent that Louis Philippe decided that flight was the

*Thirty-three years after the Congress of Vienna had done its worst, the storm broke. The revolting French people besieged the royal palace in Paris, dethroned the king, and set off a general European uprising.*

*Schoenfeld Collection from Three Lions*







Lewis Galloway

*The Paris Opera House is one of the most famous in the world. It was built during the rule of Napoleon III.*

only thing left for him. Hearing the cries "Long live the Republic," he slipped out of the country as his cousin, Louis XVI, had tried to do and went to England.

In Paris, where the revolutionary spirit was especially strong, street fighting continued. Working men demanded jobs, and for a time a provisional government attempted to give them work. The leader in this experiment was Louis Blanc, a Socialist. Dishonesty and greed made the plan unworkable and violence continued. The government troops finally defeated the insurgents and imposed severe punishments.

At length a constitution similar to that of the United States was drawn up. In December, 1848, Louis Napoleon, a nephew of Napoleon I, was elected president of the Second French Republic by an overwhelming majority. The Republic did not last long. Louis Napoleon was a shrewd man and he was determined to make himself emperor. The name Napoleon still stirred the hearts of Frenchmen so that it was easy for him to work up enthusiasm for a monarchy. In 1852 he ordered a plebiscite to determine whether or not he should be emperor. The results were overwhelmingly in his favor. The Second Republic was

dead and France was again an empire, this time under Napoleon III, as he was known.

### **Revolt by the Slavic People**

The revolutionary spirit of 1848 spread to other countries. In the strong Austrian Empire nationalism and liberalism were both at work. The reactionary government of the emperor and Metternich made the laws, levied the taxes, and spent the money without any accounting to the people. The German Hapsburgs were ruling Poles, Czechs, Ruthenians, Slovenes, Serbs, Croats, and Magyars. These Slavic peoples were in the majority if taken together, but the Germans of Bohemia and Austria were favored in the government. The Slavic peoples asked for self-government within the empire. The emperor made some promises, but he did not carry them out. In the revolt against him he was forced to abdicate in favor of his eighteen-year-old nephew, Francis Joseph (1848-1916). Metternich, in fear for his life, fled to England. When the people of Milan and Venice heard that Metternich had fled, they drove out the Austrian troops and set up republics.

### **Revolt in Prussia**

The revolutionary spirit also affected Prussia. A crowd went to Frederick William IV (1840-1861) asking for a constitution. Bloodshed and rioting broke out in Berlin. The king became alarmed and called a constitutional assembly to meet in Berlin. Before its work was completed, Frederick regained his confidence and dissolved it. He gave the people a constitution of his own making in 1850. It was designed to safeguard the power and rights of the kings and nobles. It was a bitter disappointment to the liberals in Prussia, who were not strong enough to get the kind of constitution that they wanted.

## Failure of the Liberals

The fervor of the revolution spent itself for the time being. The liberals were beaten everywhere. We have seen what happened in France and Prussia. In Austria a reactionary government gained control under the new young emperor. The constitutions and popular governments set up in the Italian states were swept away.

The German states had hoped to unite into an empire. They called a National Assembly to meet at Frankfurt in 1848. For weeks they debated the kind of government they wanted, but their wrangling lost them the respect of the people. Finally, when they had made a constitution, they offered the office of emperor to the king of Prussia. Frederick William, seeing the sentiment of the masses toward the Assembly, scorned to take a crown from a revolutionary assembly. Therefore, Germany remained broken into small states under the old German Confederation set up in 1815.

Liberalism and nationalism failed generally in 1848. Personal liberties were not gained. Neither Italy nor Germany achieved unity. Democratic government was still only a dream of the liberal reformers.

1. What three revolts occurred in the 1820's?
2. Why did the French keep Louis XVIII as ruler?
3. Explain why Charles X and Louis Philippe fled from France.
4. By what steps did Louis Napoleon become Napoleon III?
5. What two countries in addition to France had revolutions in 1830? With what results?
6. Tell the story of the Revolution of 1848 in Austria-Hungary.
7. What were the circumstances under which the Constitution of 1850 was granted in Prussia?



New York Public Library

*Note the word Republic on the tattered flag of the revolutionists in Berlin. Men in despair fought with sticks.*

8. Why were the German states not united in 1848?
9. What were the general results of the Revolutions of 1848?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did the Congress of Vienna not attack the social problems of disease, destruction of property, and poverty?
2. Are the spirits of liberalism and nationalism still causes for dissatisfaction in the world?
3. In what ways might the results have been different if representatives of the people had been at the Congress of Vienna?
4. Do you agree with most of the representatives at the Congress of Vienna that the ideas of the Holy Alliance were nonsense?
5. Do nationalism and liberalism always go together? Can you give examples?
6. Is a constitution a guarantee that the rights of the people will be respected?
7. Why did the Revolutions of 1848 fail?
8. Had any gains been made by the liberals between 1815 and 1848?



Bettmann Archive

*This revolution in Vienna in 1848 caused Metternich to flee to England. Were the revolutions of 1848 complete failures?*

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• abdicate • balance of power • Carlsbad  
 Decrees • "citizen king" • compensation  
 • guarantees • Holy Alliance • legitimacy  
 • Quadruple Alliance • *status quo* •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• 1815 • 1820 • 1830 • 1848 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

• Austria • Austria-Hungary • Belgium •  
 Bohemia • Cape of Good Hope • Ceylon •  
 Finland • France • Great Britain • Greece •  
 • Holland • Lombardy • Malta • Poland •  
 • Portugal • Prussia • Rhine River •  
 Russia • Saxony • Spain • Sweden •  
 Swedish Pomerania • Two Sicilies • Tyrol •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

• Alexander I • Louis Blanc • Castlereagh  
 • Charles X • Ferdinand VII • Francis I •  
 Francis Joseph • Frederick William III •  
 Frederick William IV • George III • Henry  
 VIII • Louis XVIII • Louis Napoleon •  
 Talleyrand • Louis Philippe • Metternich •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Each member of the class may select one of the following countries to read about further: Finland, Sweden, Norway, Holland, Belgium, or Austria. Write in your own words a summary of your readings. You can illustrate it with pictures of the clothing, houses, industries, and cities of the country studied. *The National Geographic Magazine* is a good source for information and pictures. Consult the Index to this periodical in your library.

2. Select one of the representatives to the Congress of Vienna. Give a report on his life and achievements to the class.

## III. A Radio Broadcast

Prepare a five-minute radio broadcast describing a dinner or ball held in connection with the Congress of Vienna. See pictures on page 327.

## IV. Blackboard Discussion

1. Place on the blackboard the following names:

• George Washington • Napoleon I •  
 Alexander I • Louis XVIII • Metternich •  
 Talleyrand •

Appoint four or five members of the class to hold a discussion for the class on which of these was the greatest man. At the close of the discussion, write on the blackboard the qualities the class thinks important in a great man, as these have been brought out in the discussion.

2. List all the instances cited in this chapter in which a fight for liberal government was the cause for revolts; make another list in which the spirit of nationalism caused the revolt. In some instances you will have the same revolt in both columns.

## V. Doll Collection

The national costumes of this period, including styles in fashion in France and Great Britain during the period, will make interesting additions to your doll collection.





## The Rise of Latin American Nations

While revolutions in Europe were changing the lives and governments of the people of those countries, trouble was brewing in the thinly populated countries of Latin America. The Latin Americans took advantage of the fact that the mother countries of Spain and Portugal were occupied with troubles at home and attempted to throw off their rule.

Let us see what had been happening in Latin America since the time of the explorers of the sixteenth century. In an amazingly short time the Spaniards and Portuguese had overrun all Latin America except the interior mountain and jungle sections, some of which are still unexplored. The Portuguese took Brazil, and Spain got nearly all of the rest of the South American continent, as well as Mexico, Central America, and the rich West Indies. Because they had interests that kept them busy in other parts of the world, the Dutch, French, and British gained only small colonies in Latin America.

### THE WEALTH OF LATIN AMERICA

The land which the Spaniards and Portuguese claimed is about three times the size

of the United States. It extends from the Rio Grande (rē'ō grān'dā) River on the north to Cape Horn, seven thousand miles to the south. On the west is a narrow coastal plain, part of which contains rich nitrates. The high Andes Mountains rise abruptly east of this plain. In the mountains deposits of copper, tin, gold, and silver are hidden away and difficult to reach. The southern and central parts of South America have vast pampas grasslands, ideal for cattle and sheep raising. The height of the plateau north of the La Plata River makes the temperature of much of Brazil delightful the year round. Still farther north is the valley of the Amazon, the largest river in the world. The Amazon valley is covered with dense tropical vegetation that white men were unable to penetrate. The northern sections of South America, the West Indies, Central America, and Mexico contain wealth in silver, petroleum, fine woods, and other plants. Despite the wealth of natural resources, Latin America lacks coal and iron and much of its soil is poor.

**European Culture** The Europeans who came into this new land brought their Spanish and Portuguese languages, re-

ligion, and customs. They introduced new crops, like barley, wheat, oranges, and lemons. They brought the horse and good breeds of cattle. They built houses in the Spanish style with inner courts and overhanging balconies. Cathedrals arose in every large town, and the Church established universities in several places. The University of Lima opened its doors to students nearly a century before Harvard, the first college in what became the United States, was established. By 1600 cities had been built in all parts of Latin America, in Mexico City, Panama, Lima (lē ma), Santiago (săn tē ä'gō), Buenos Aires (bwā'nōs ī'rās), Rio de Janeiro (rē'ō dā zhā nā'rō), Havana, and others.

**Colonists and Natives** After plundering the temples and palaces of the natives, the Spaniards had to settle down to working the mines if they wanted more gold and silver. They tried to enslave the Indians for that purpose, but many of them died within a short time. Only a few Spaniards controlled the mines. Most of them had to send one fifth of the gold and silver to the king of Spain. Even so, the owners of the mines became fabulously wealthy.

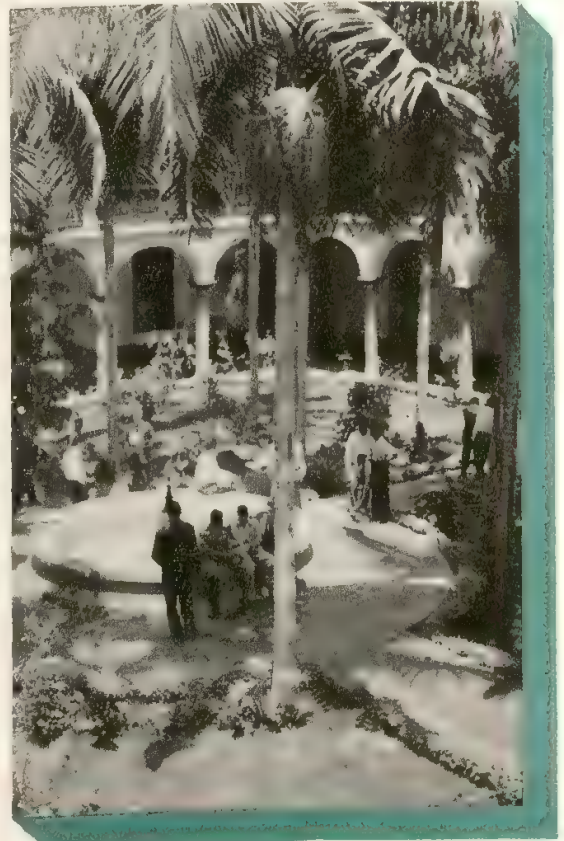
Not all of the Europeans came to America to get rich, and some who did come for that reason stayed because they liked the country. It is estimated that 30,000 Spanish families came to the New World in the colonial period. The Portuguese and the Spaniards sent missionaries to Christianize the natives. The missionaries tried to prevent enslavement of the Indians and they frequently set up schools to teach them. Their efforts were overshadowed, though, by the cruel and greedy pioneers, who thought little of the welfare of the natives.

**Spanish Rule** Like other nations of the time, Spain applied the doctrine of mercantilism in her dealings with her colonies. Merchandise had to be carried in Spanish ships, and no goods could be made in America if they competed with Spanish manufactures. Spain believed that the colonies should provide riches for Spain.

In other ways, too, Spain strictly controlled her colonies. They had very little self-government. There was no freedom of expression. Taxes were high and unevenly distributed. If a person wished to migrate to Latin America he had to prove that his ancestors had been Catholics for generations and that he himself had been born in Spain, thus keeping Latin America Catholic.

*La Universidad de San Marcos in Lima, Peru, was founded in 1551, making it one of the two oldest in this hemisphere.*

Pan American Airways



**Portuguese Rule** Portugal had similar laws regarding Brazil, though they were somewhat less strict. Conditions were different in Brazil, too. The conquerors found no high civilization there, though the land had great natural resources. Brazil was a large country, larger than the present United States. Much of the country was a dense jungle. The Portuguese established plantations along the coast and had both Indian and Negro slaves to work them.

Under such rigid restrictions it is no wonder that the colonies took advantage of the first opportunity they had to gain their independence.

1. Which countries gained most of the colonies of Latin America?
2. Why did Holland, France, and Great Britain get so little land in South America?
3. What land comprises Latin America? What natural resources are found there?
4. Why did Spaniards go to Latin America?
5. How did the colonists influence the culture of Latin America?
6. What restrictions did Spain and Portugal place upon their colonies?

## LATIN AMERICANS REVOLT

**Causes of the Latin American Revolutions** The success of the English colonists in North America in gaining their independence gave heart to the men who hoped to lead the Latin Americans to independence. The French Revolution also encouraged colonial leaders to look forward to their own liberty. Many of the colonists sent their sons to European universities, where they read the French and English philosophers and came to accept their political teachings. Then, too, Spain had grown increasingly weak since the defeat

of the Armada (1588), and her control over the colonial governments could be more safely defied. For all these reasons the Latin Americans were eager for self-rule.

The opportunity for action came with the Napoleonic Wars in Europe. Spain was overrun by Napoleon's armies, the king was forced to abdicate, and Napoleon placed his older brother, Joseph, on the Spanish throne. When the representatives of the new government arrived in the colonies, many of the royal officials there refused to obey them and ruled as they had before. In other cases the royal officials were replaced by local people. During the years that these conditions existed, the colonists became accustomed to govern-



*Can you see any historical reason for the instability of some Latin American countries?*

ments not tied to Spain. When the king was restored to power after the Napoleonic Wars, the colonies rebelled against him.

**Francisco de Miranda** The revolution in the Spanish colonies was not a united effort like that in the American colonies. Instead, the Spanish colonies fought independently for their freedom. In some places the revolution started as early



as 1810, but the end of the revolutions did not come until 1826. The first country to revolt was Venezuela, under the leadership of Francisco de Miranda, who proved to be a better planner of revolutions and battles than an executor of them. He was defeated and taken to Spain, where he died in prison. The spark that he had struck took hold, nonetheless, and others carried the revolution to a successful conclusion.

**Father Hidalgo** (hĩ dāl'gō) In the same year that Miranda started his ill-fated attack to free Venezuela from Spanish rule, an attempt was made in Mexico to free that country. There a priest named Hidalgo led a group of peasants against the Spanish army stationed in Mexico. Like Miranda, Hidalgo failed and was executed. But also like Miranda, his patriotism inspired the Mexicans, and a few years later Mexico drove out the Spanish governor and set up a Republic. Hidalgo is honored in Mexico as the "father of his country."

**Simón Bolívar** (bō lē'vār) Simón Bolívar stands out above all others in the history of Latin American independence. He was a member of a wealthy ruling family in Venezuela, but he spent more than ten years of his life and all his fortune in the cause of South American independence. Under the most difficult conditions and with very little support, he led his armies across deserts and over the high mountain passes of the Andes to gain independence for Venezuela. Later he fought for Ecuador and Peru. The countries of Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, and Peru consider Bolívar their Liberator.

**José de San Martín** José de San Martín (hō zā' dē sãn mār tēn') was born in



Philip Gendreau

*This fine equestrian statue of Bolívar captures the spirit of his dashing bravery.*

Argentina but spent his early life in Spain where his father was a military officer. He joined the army himself when only eleven and won distinction fighting in Spain. After twenty years of service, he heard of the fight for independence in his native country. He left Spain and came back to America to help in the struggle. He was soon given command of the forces in Argentina. He led his army across the Andes Mountains to liberate Chile. This was so amazing a feat that it has been compared to Hannibal's crossing the Alps. San Martín won victories in Chile and went on to help other countries. It was due to his wise leadership and bravery that Argentina, Chile, Paraguay, and Uruguay gained their independence. Then he and Bolívar defeated the last Spanish armies in Peru and Bolivia. Between them, Bolívar and San Martín had liberated nine colonies from Spanish oppression. It is no wonder that monuments to them are to be seen today throughout South America.

Other men followed in their steps until all the Spanish colonies on the mainland of South America were independent.



L. C. Handy Studios

*This picture might be called The Birth of the Monroe Doctrine. President Monroe discusses with his cabinet his plans for the Western Hemisphere. Thus, less than fifty years after independence, America challenged the strength of Europe.*

**Brazilian Independence** The story of Brazil was very different. In Portugal the ruler also lost his crown at the hands of Napoleon. He escaped to Brazil, however, with the aid of the British, and raised Brazil from the status of a colony to that of a kingdom. This was the only time in history that a colony became the seat of government of an empire. When independent government was set up again in Portugal, the king returned home, leaving his son, Don Pedro, as Regent in Brazil. The people of Brazil were eager for independence, and in 1822 the Regent was proclaimed Emperor Pedro I and Brazil was independent without war or bloodshed. Pedro I ruled for nine years and then abdicated in favor of his popular son, Pedro II. Agitation for a republican form of government, as in the rest of the Latin American countries, grew in Brazil, despite the fact that Don Pedro II was a liberal monarch and did much for his country. Finally, in 1889, the monarchy was overthrown and the republic was established.

1. Why were the colonies of Latin America able to throw off the rule of Spain?
2. Who were the leaders in the movement for independence in Spanish America and what did each achieve?
3. Tell the story of how Brazil became a republic.

#### LATIN AMERICAN REPUBLICS LACKED STABILITY

**Monroe Doctrine** These revolutions did not go unnoticed by Metternich in Vienna and other unsympathetic leaders in Europe. The major countries on the continent of Europe were committed by the Quadruple Alliance to maintain the *status quo*. They looked with disfavor upon the South American revolutions and threatened to intervene to help Spain get her colonies back. Great Britain, on the other hand, was eager for the republics to maintain their independence. She had developed markets in Latin America and knew that they would be lost if Spain re-



gained her colonies and their trade.

Many people in the United States were sympathetic toward Latin American independence, partly because they had gained their own. Congress urged the President to recognize the new republics. Finally President Monroe, in his State of the Union Message to Congress in December, 1823, included a statement which has come to be called the *Monroe Doctrine*. In it he warned the European nations not to attempt to extend their systems to any portion of this hemisphere and stated that America was no longer open to colonization. Monroe also made it clear that the United States would not interfere in the affairs of Europe.

The European powers were really in no position to make good their threat against Latin American republics. Neither was the United States at that time in any position to stop them. The Monroe Doctrine was accepted with approval both at home and in Great Britain. It later became a cornerstone of American foreign policy.

### Problems of the New Republics

The republics of Latin America soon learned that all their problems had not been solved by independence. The great masses of the people could not read or write. Class distinction continued. The class that had ruled then continued to do so. Taxes were still unequally distributed. The masses were kept in poverty. Means of communication were poor and money with which to develop the very rich natural resources of the countries was not available. These conditions caused continued civil strife. Rulers resorted to bribery, corrupt elections, and dictatorial methods to stay in power. Rival candidates frequently had their followers at the polls, where they

fought each other with fists and guns. Republican government became a farce in most countries south of the Rio Grande.

Territorial disputes raged also. Boundaries had never been well-defined in the vast territory that was so thinly settled. Instead of settling boundaries around a conference table, the Latin Americans often engaged in long and bitter wars.



Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)

Wooden ploughs and oxen are used to cultivate most crops in Colombia. Rocky soil makes modern tools impractical.

The problems of the Latin American republics were deep-seated. The white population there had not been brought up with the tradition of freedom that the Northern Europeans had brought to the English colonies. The majority of the population were Indians. Constitutions and representative governments were entirely new to them. In the long colonial period they had been given little practice in self-government or in independent economic



life. It is small wonder that the republics of Latin America were unstable and that many fell under the rule of dictators.

**Progress** Although Bolívar wrote in sadness on his deathbed in 1830 that independence was the only thing that Latin America had achieved, some advances were made during the nineteenth century. It is true that the villages and rural districts remained backward. They were isolated because of a lack of roads and railroads. Consequently, life there changed little. Few peasants could read or write, sanitation was primitive, and life was hard. Since much of the soil of Latin America is poor and the peasants had little knowledge of the means of improving it, the people were impoverished. On the other hand, the cities of Latin America were improved in many ways. They had beautiful parks, broad boulevards, and fine buildings that compare favorably with those of large cities of the United States or Europe. The harbors were improved and trade grew, especially with many European countries.

*A snow-capped peak of the Andes Mountains furnishes the background for this beautiful plaza in a Peruvian city. The cathedral faces the plaza. Notice the Roman arches on the building at the right.*

Thousands of immigrants from Italy, Germany, and England came to South America to make new homes. The governments of the more advanced "A.B.C." countries, Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, became more stable, if not more liberal.

The revolutionary spirit brought forth a burst of literature in Latin America immortalizing Bolívar and other heroes in prose and poetry. Later there was a similar outpouring of writing that was nationalistic in character. Art galleries were built in many large cities. In the opera houses and music halls concerts were given by the world's leading performers. The state- and city-owned theaters in most of the big cities engaged the best companies of actors. The cities, at least, were centers of culture.

### The "Colossus of the North"

The Monroe Doctrine had been welcomed in Latin America in 1823 as a protection against aggressive European powers. The Latin Americans believed that their sister republic to the north was their protector. Only twenty-three years later a war be-



Black Star

tween the United States and Mexico (1846-1848), as a result of which the United States received part of Mexico's territory, caused many Latin Americans to change their minds.

In the latter part of the nineteenth century, capital from the United States began to flow into Latin America to develop the many natural resources of the countries south of the Rio Grande. Many of the inhabitants did not understand the energetic business methods of the Americans who came to Latin America to run the plantations and mines. Nationalism developed in many countries, where the leaders wanted to run their own affairs. They particularly disliked the United States government for taking a hand in their governments to restore order and prevent American capital from being destroyed during revolutions. By the end of the nineteenth century the Latin Americans were agreed upon one thing. They feared the United States. Americans had the capital that South America needed to make use of its raw materials, but America's power was so great! The United States had become the *Colossus of the North!* The people of the United States, on the other hand, found it difficult to do business with Latin Americans. The instability of their governments made it very risky to invest money there. One dictator might welcome such investments, while a new one coming in after him might drive out the investor and seize his property.

1. What was the Monroe Doctrine and why was it issued?
2. What were the causes for the lack of stability in the Latin American governments?
3. Why were there so many boundary disputes between Latin American countries?

4. Why were the villages and rural districts of Latin America particularly backward?
5. What progress was made in Latin America during the nineteenth century?
6. Why did Latin America come to fear the United States?
7. Why did people of the United States find it difficult to do business in Latin America?
8. What important changes had taken place in the world during this era of revolution?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. In what ways was Spanish colonization in Latin America different from British colonization in North America?

2. Why is the land south of the Rio Grande River called Latin America?

3. In what ways was the liberation of Latin America a more difficult military task than the fight for independence in the United States?

4. Why is South America potentially rich?

5. In what ways is Latin America tied more closely to Europe than to the United States?

6. Why is Indian blood in a larger proportion of the Latin American population than of the population of the United States?

7. What parts of the United States were originally explored and settled by Spaniards? What evidence of Spanish influence yet remains?

8. Were Latin Americans' fears of the United States justified?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

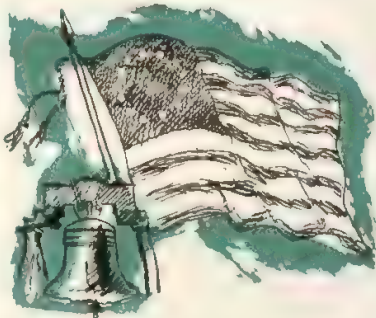
1. Can you explain these terms?

• "Colossus of the North" • Monroe Doctrine •

2. Do you know your dates?

• 1810-1826 • 1823 • 1846-1848 • 1889 •

# 8 • Milestones Toward Democracy

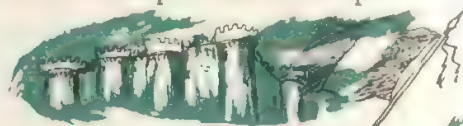


The most permanent advancement toward democracy the world had yet known took place during this period, when the American colonists declared their independence from England, fought to obtain it, and set up our Constitution.

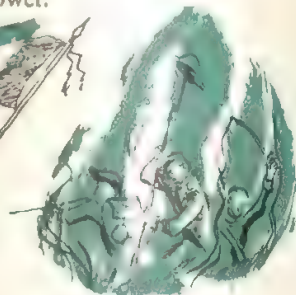


Across the oceans, in Mexico, and in South America, patriots led Venezuela, Colombia, Ecuador, Peru, and Argentina in revolts against Spain. These countries, and Brazil, gained their independence, but little democracy. Almost at once they came under the control of selfish and ambitious men.

The late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries saw mankind striving toward "life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" in many areas of the world. Some of the gains made by revolutions were permanent. Many were lost for a time when selfish rulers schemed to keep and increase their power.



In France, a few years later, the Third Estate formed the National Assembly, setting off the French Revolution. The Declaration of the Rights of Man shared with the American Declaration of Independence in directing mankind toward liberty and freedom.



The efforts of the Congress of Vienna to return the Old Regime to Europe were successful, but they also fanned the flames of discontent, resulting in the revolt against kings and nobles. Most of these were unsuccessful, but Greece gained independence and the Kingdom of the Two Sicilies gained a written constitution.



## 3. Places to locate on the map:

- Amazon River • Andes Mountains • Argentina • Brazil • Buenos Aires • Central America • Chile • Colombia • Ecuador • Havana • LaPlata River • Lima • Mexico • Mexico City • Panama • Portugal • Rio de Janeiro • Rio Grande River • Santiago • Venezuela •

## 4. Can you identify these persons?

- Simón Bolívar • Joseph Bonaparte •

- Father Hidalgo • Francisco de Miranda • James Monroe • Napoleon I • Pedro II • Jose de San Martin •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

### I. For special reports to the class:

- The harbor of Rio de Janeiro • Rubber plantation in Brazil • The coffee industry in Brazil • Where our chewing gum comes from • Art Galleries of Latin America • Christ of the Andes • A trip by railroad across



# 8 · Milestones of Living

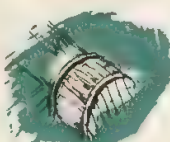
The Napoleonic Wars and the revolutions in Europe created ruins, poverty, and general misery for the people. Mankind, during this period, was concentrating on the struggle for human liberties. With freedom, however, come better ways of living, and bit by bit, man continued to pull himself up to higher levels of culture.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

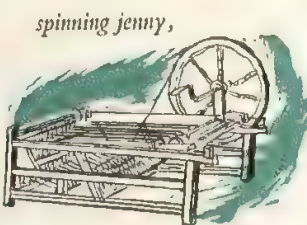
All the while political upheavals were taking place, great minds were at work for man. Some important inventions were developed, which were to revolutionize man's life. These included the



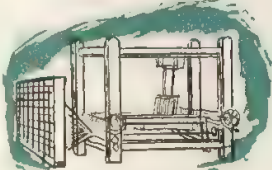
cotton gin,



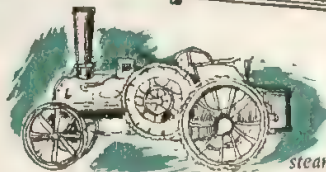
flying shuttle,



spinning jenny,



power loom,



steam engine.

## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

Napoleon established a school system in France, ranging from primary schools through the University of Paris and teachers colleges. He also set up a code of laws for France, which was the best of its day.

Universities, founded many years earlier, continued to offer higher education for a privileged few, despite the wars carried on around them. Educational opportunities, however, were denied most of the people of the world.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

Napoleon beautified Paris. Latin American cities had fine plazas, cathedrals, and other public buildings.

Music and other forms of artistic expression were produced, often as a result of the struggles of mankind.



the Andes . A trip by plane across the Andes . The nitrate industry of Chile . The Gauchos on the pampas . Methods of transportation in Latin America .

2. Secure a catalogue of one of the Latin American universities. Compare the courses it offers with those of a university in the United States. Report your findings to the class.

### III. Class Committee Work

1. Prepare a list of place names in the United States which had their origin during the period of the Spanish colonization. Copy the list on the blackboard.

2. Choose three or four Latin American countries for further study. Divide the class into committees to prepare bibliographies of the countries chosen. (Use the *Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature*.) With the approval of the teacher, select one of the articles listed in each bibliography for special reports to the class. If possible, illustrate the reports with pictures or slides.

### IV. For the Bulletin Board

1. Using the World Almanac find the population of each of the Latin American Republics. Show by means of a bar graph how they compare with each other and with the population of the United States at the last census.

2. Make a pictorial map of South America or of Latin America showing the chief products of each country. You can get this information from a commercial geography. Display the best maps on the bulletin board.

### V. Latin American Music

Bring to class recordings of Latin American music.

### VI. Picture Study

Study the picture on page 340. What is interesting about the map on the wall? What members of the President's cabinet can you identify? What positions did they hold? President Monroe was the last President to dress in clothes of colonial style.

ALDINGTON, RICHARD, *The Duke*, The Viking Press, 1943

*A biography of the first Duke of Wellington.*

BILL, ALFRED HOYT, *Clutch of the Corsican*, Little Brown & Co., 1925

*An historical novel of the last days of Napoleon. Gives a good picture of France at that time.*

DAVIS, WILLIAM STEARNS: *Whirlwind*, The Macmillan Co., 1929

*A novel dealing with the French Revolution.*

DICKENS, CHARLES, *Tale of Two Cities*, Dodd, Mead & Co.

EATON, JEANETTE: *Leader by Destiny: George Washington*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1938

*A simple but satisfactory life of Washington.*

FORBES, ESTHER: *Johnny Tremain: a Novel for Young and Old*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1943

*This is the story of a young Boston apprentice during the exciting days of the Boston Tea Party and the Battle of Lexington.*

FORD, PAUL LEICESTER, *Janice Merideth*, Dodd, Mead & Co.

*A very good novel of Revolutionary War days.*

FRANKLIN, BENJAMIN: *Autobiography*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1928

LANSING, MARION FLORENCE, *Liberators and Heroes of South America*, L. C. Page & Co., 1940

*This book not only gives the biographies of the great heroes of South American liberation but also depicts the continent in the nineteenth century.*

MADELIN, LOUIS, *Talleyrand*, Roy Publishers, 1948

*A vivid biography of an unscrupulous and fascinating French statesman.*

VANCE, MARGUERITE, *Marie Antoinette*, E. P. Dutton & Co., 1950

*This biography of the willful and tragic queen is told for young readers. Of particular interest to girls.*

WALDECK, R. G., *Lustre in the Sky*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1946

*In this story of intrigue at the Congress of Vienna, Czar Alexander, Talleyrand, Castlereagh, Metternich, and others walk across the stage.*

WAUGH, ELIZABETH DEY, *Simón Bolívar: a Story of Courage*, The Macmillan Co., 1941

*A colorful biography of Bolívar.*

# *Man and machines*



*changed ways of living*





## The New World of

From the time of the pharaohs down the centuries to the days of Louis XIV of France and George I of England mankind had made no radical changes and very little progress in methods of manufacturing and farming. To be sure, better spinning wheels

and plows were made, but their improvements were only minor. They still had to be operated by hand, and human beings or animals still furnished the power.

It was not until the third quarter of the eighteenth century that a real change, a



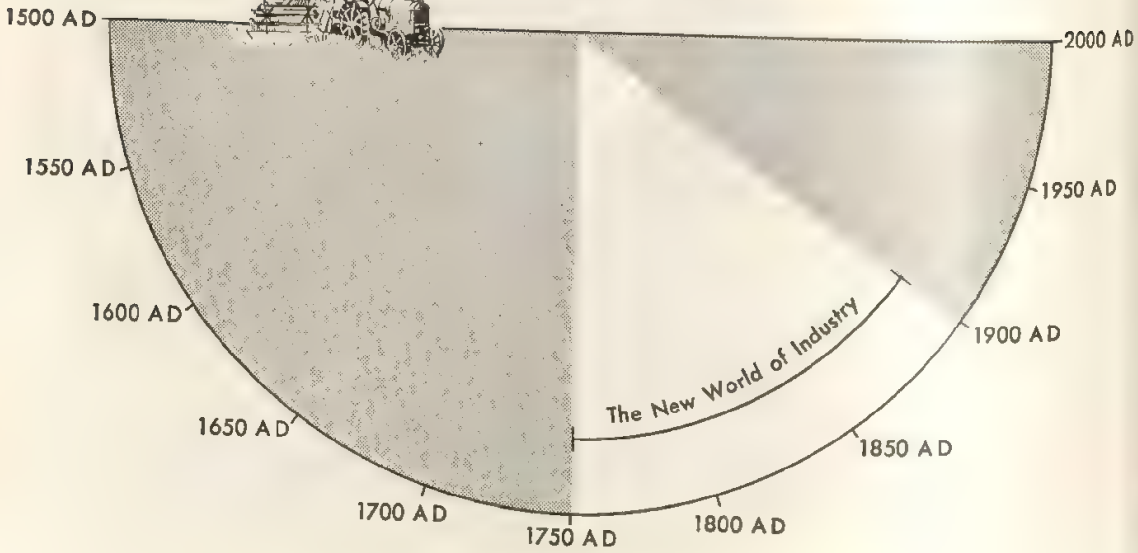
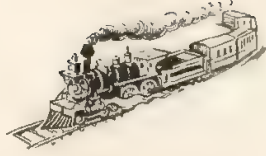
We call the first phase of this changeover the Industrial Revolution, but in a sense that revolution is still going on today. It has led to the change from small output to the turning out of materials in such large quantities that today we have *mass production*. It started with the application of steam to machinery, taking the place of human power. Today not only steam but electricity, too, is used to run machines. The fuel used in the opening phase of the Industrial Revolution was wood. Today coal and oil are common fuels. Scientists are at work on the use of the sun's rays for fuel to run our machines. The smashing of the atom has made possible the use of atomic energy for manufacturing, too. In a sense the Industrial Revolution is over, but the future holds many more advances along the road on which the Industrial Revolution started mankind.

# INDUSTRY

*revolution*, in methods came. We call this change the Industrial Revolution. What was the Industrial Revolution? It was the change from hand work to machine work. It was also the change from the *domestic system*, that is, making products in the home, to the *factory system*.

The Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain. From there it was brought to the United States, where it flourished, building a huge industrial empire. As time passed, it spread to other countries

of Europe and to Asia, Latin America, Canada, and Australia. The domestic system is still used in some parts of the world where machines have not yet eased mankind's burden of hard labor. Each year, however, the factory system spreads to other sections of the globe.







## *Machines Change the World*

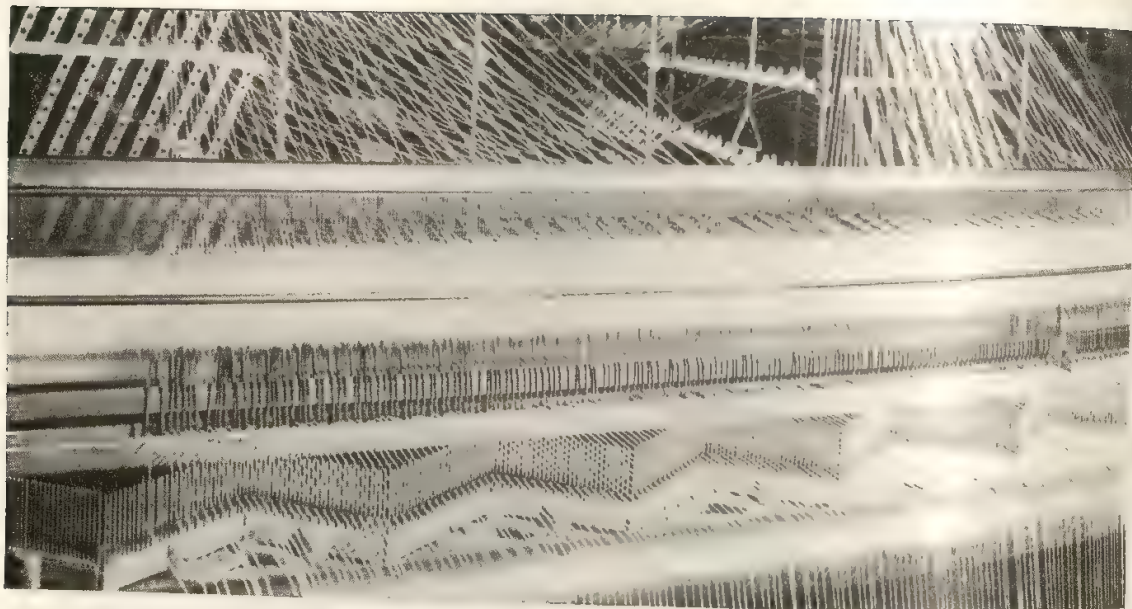
There were several reasons why the Industrial Revolution started in Great Britain rather than in France, the other great power of the day. In the first place, Britain had the money necessary to finance the larger enterprises. England's supremacy on the seas had encouraged commerce, and Englishmen had been amassing wealth through their commerce and industry. The newly rich class in that country were not the aristocratic group, but merchants and business men who were willing to devote themselves to industry and scientific agriculture. They did not believe that to engage in business was beneath them. The wealth of France, on the other hand, was largely in the hands of the nobility, and they were not willing to do the necessary work to develop industry.

In the second place, Great Britain had undertaken very early the manufacture of inexpensive and more practical products for which there would be an ever-growing demand from the people, especially the new middle class. Woolen and linen cloth and iron and wooden articles had been important products in England for centuries, while France produced articles in the luxury class. These could never be turned out in quantities because they demanded individuality. Moreover, the demand for luxury goods is always limited. England was

the producer of goods that were needed in quantities, and if she could find a cheaper means of producing them, her markets would grow. So she was ready for methods that would make it possible to manufacture in large quantities.

In the third place, for a long time England had had large numbers of semi-skilled workers. When the feudal system broke down in England and the manors were turned to sheep raising, numbers of Englishmen went to the towns. There they engaged in weaving, making shoes, wood carving, and many other occupations that developed skills. When the Industrial Revolution began, these men were available for the work on the new machines. Moreover, they were free men who could move from place to place as the need for workers arose. This had not been the case in France. France was still chiefly an agricultural country with peasants bound to their masters in many ways so they could not easily move to the cities.

In the fourth place, coal was abundant in Great Britain, and a large amount of this cheap fuel was necessary for running the factories. There was coal in northern France, too, but France was late in tapping such resources because nearly everyone depended directly or indirectly on farming for his living.



Ewing Galloway

*A modern worsted warping machine run by power is not so far removed in principle from the hand-weaving tools of the Egyptians. Compare this picture with the one on page 34.*

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION BEGINS IN THE TEXTILE INDUSTRY

**Flying Shuttle** In the seventeenth century cotton began to be used extensively in England despite the laws prohibiting its use that had been passed to protect the linen and woolen manufacturers. It was in the new cotton industry that steps to improve manufacturing methods were first taken. As early as 1733 John Kay invented the "flying shuttle," a device to speed up the weaving of cloth. The shuttle was that part of the loom which passed the crosswise threads, known as woof, between the lengthwise threads, called warp. It was not until about thirty-five years later, however, that the shuttle was widely adopted.

**Machines to Make Thread** About 1767 James Hargreaves made a spinning device that could spin eight threads at a time. The workers, fearing that this would cause unemployment, at first rejected the new

machine. It gained acceptance at last, however, and the spinners installed them in their homes. Hargreaves called his machine a spinning "jenny" in honor of his wife. Two years later Richard Arkwright completed a machine which he called a "water frame" because water power was used as energy. Because water frames were too large for home use, factories had to be built to house them. Arkwright and his partner established large mills, giving the factory system a big start. The best qualities of Hargreaves' jenny and Arkwright's water frame were combined later by Samuel Crompton in the spinning "mule."

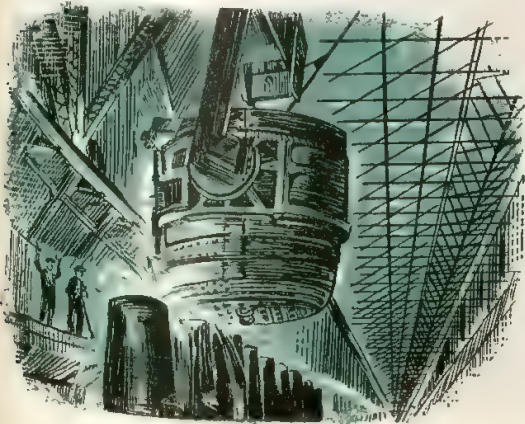
**Power Loom** The new machinery in factories made it possible to turn out large quantities of cotton thread, but improvements in weaving had not kept pace with improvements in making thread. Edmund Cartwright set himself the task of producing a weaving machine to keep up with the added output of the spinning

machines. In 1785 he perfected his power loom. The weavers at first refused to use this, for they feared that unemployment would follow when the power loom did the work of several men. It was not until about forty years later that Cartwright's loom was generally accepted in factories.

**Cotton Gin** The next important machine to be used in the cotton industry was made by an American school teacher, Eli Whitney, in 1793. He invented the cotton "gin" to separate cotton fibers from the seeds. As this made the raising of cotton more profitable in the southern United States, cotton became the chief crop there. Large quantities of cotton were shipped to Great Britain to feed the new machines. Already, in 1791, the first textile factory had been built in the United States by an immigrant from Britain, Samuel Slater. Because the laws of Britain forbade his bringing plans out of the country, Slater memorized the plans of a factory in England and built one like it in Rhode Island where he came to live.

New methods of bleaching, dyeing, and printing fabrics followed, making the manufacture of cotton one of the most important occupations of Great Britain.

*In many different forms, from the smallest sewing needle to the highest skyscraper, steel serves mankind.*



**Steam Power** In order to run the new machines, power was necessary. An Englishman, Thomas Newcomen, had made the first successful steam engine some years before to pump water out of the mines. James Watt, seeing the defects in Newcomen's engine, which required too much fuel, perfected it about 1769 and made it more economical and therefore more valuable. The steam engine was then harnessed to the new inventions in the manufacture of textiles.

## COAL AND STEEL BECOME BASIC MATERIALS OF INDUSTRY

**Coal** Up to the time of the Industrial Revolution wood had been used as fuel in Great Britain. With the use of the new machines, the consumption of wood became so great that the island's supply of timber was rapidly becoming exhausted. With the shortage of wood, manufacturers turned to coal as fuel. In the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries the mining of coal became increasingly important, and coal mining became a major industry in Britain.

**Steel** Greater amounts of iron were needed to make the new machines. Smelting plants and foundries were erected in Great Britain. In 1856 Henry Bessemer invented a process for removing the impurities from iron and making it harder. This highly refined iron, known as steel, made possible more accurate tools. In the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries such metals as manganese and tungsten were combined with steel to make a much harder alloy. It is due to this refining of steel and to the hardness of the finished product that modern precision tools are possible.



1. State the principal reasons why the Industrial Revolution started in England.
2. What improvements in spinning were made in the early days of the Industrial Revolution? Who made each?
3. What improvement was made in the method of weaving? by whom?
4. Who was Eli Whitney? Why was his invention important?
5. What did Thomas Newcomen and James Watt contribute to the Industrial Revolution?
6. What fuel was used at the beginning of the Industrial Revolution?
7. Why was Henry Bessemer's invention so important to the Industrial Revolution?

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION INCREASES TRANSPORTATION AND COMMUNICATION

**Roads** The large-scale production necessitated moving coal, iron ore, and other products from their sources to the site at which products were manufactured. The manufactured goods likewise had to be carried long distances to the places where

*The cloverleaf intersection has solved some knotty traffic problems in busy areas.*

Courtesy Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)



they were to be consumed. For these purposes better means of transportation were needed. France led the modern world in road and canal building in the latter part of the eighteenth century. In Great Britain and in the United States canals were dug linking important rivers and lakes. Then a Scotchman, John Macadam (1756-1836), devised a new method of road building. He placed on the roadbed layers of rocks, heavy ones on the bottom and smaller rocks on each succeeding layer. Over the rocks he put a layer of pitch or tar. These hard-surfaced Macadam roads proved to be very durable and popular not only in Great Britain but in Canada and the United States where they were introduced. Stage coaches made as much as fourteen miles an hour on the new roads.

**Steamboats** There was need for faster water transportation, too. The first commercially successful steamboat, the *Clermont*, was tried out in the United States on the Hudson River. The inventor was an American, Robert Fulton. He made the 150-mile trip from New York to Albany in 32 hours, a speed of about five miles per hour.

Although Fulton's steamboat was small, it was a beginning, and from it there developed large ocean-going vessels. The first transocean steamboat, the *Sirius*, crossed the Atlantic in eighteen days in 1838. In the 1850's the screw propeller supplanted the paddle wheel, and boats were made larger and speedier.

**Railroads** Better roads, canals, and steamboats aided transportation, but they were not enough. The most successful of the early locomotives was built in Great Britain by George Stephenson. His *Rocket*,

built in 1829, traveled thirty-one miles, at an average speed of fourteen miles an hour on its first trip. Many persons objected to the noisy, frightening monster. They feared it would make horses extinct and farmers would not be able to sell their hay and oats; it would pollute the air with its smoke; it would frighten the cows and the chickens as it passed by; and it would set fire to houses near the tracks. Despite the objectors, railroads grew in numbers. Iron tracks were soon laid in Belgium, Italy, France, Germany, and the United States, as well as in Great Britain. In the United States, for instance, between 1830 and 1870 a network of railroad tracks was laid throughout the northeastern part of the country, and steel bands spanned the continent from east to west, linking the oceans. In Russia a 4,000-mile track, the Trans-Siberian Railroad, connected Moscow and Vladivostok (vlá dī vōs tōk') on the Pacific Coast. The British built short lines in Africa which, pieced together, linked Cairo in Egypt with Johannesburg in South Africa. The Germans planned, and

partially finished, a railroad linking Berlin and Baghdad in far-off Turkey.

Railroads were built not only to carry an increasing amount of freight, but as a popular means of travel. Many improvements were made in passenger trains. Air-brakes made them safer; bigger and better engines made them faster; dining cars, sleeping cars, and soft cushions made them comfortable.

**Automobiles** The gasoline engine was invented in the middle of the 1880's. It was used as motive power for the launch, the bicycle, and the buggy. In the United States several companies sprang up in the opening years of the twentieth century to make automobiles. Henry Ford popularized automobiles by making them cheap enough so that the average American could afford them. He did this by mass production. Every part of the car was standardized and turned out in large quantities. Slow-moving assembly lines were set up in plants. As the partially finished car passed the workers, each one of them added a cer-

*Coal awaiting transport in Britain is assembled in marshalling yards, where freight trains are made up to be sent to different parts of the country. Goods of all kinds are sorted in this yard and sent on their way.*

Courtesy British Information Services





tain part, until at the end of the line the finished product was rolled off. By this method of standardization, parts could be turned out by the thousands. Mass production methods were applied to hundreds of other industries. In France, Germany, and Great Britain automobile factories were established also, although there were more automobiles produced in the United States than in all the rest of the world put together.

In 1839 Charles Goodyear had discovered how to vulcanize rubber so that it would be hard. This discovery contributed markedly to the automobile's success. Rubber tires made the automobile comfortable, and therefore popular. Rubber was also used in a multitude of other ways in industry.

**Airplanes** Ever since the time of the ancient Greeks, man had dreamed of flying. According to Greek mythology, a youth named Icarus (I kâr'ûs) had made a pair of wings, fastening them to himself with wax. Unfortunately, he flew too near the sun and the sun's heat melted the wax. The wings fell off and Icarus plunged

into the sea and was drowned. Leonardo da Vinci had spent a good deal of effort trying to learn the secret of flight, but he did not succeed although many of his principles of construction were correct. In the late eighteenth century some Frenchmen ascended high into the air in gas-filled balloons. Starting in the 1890's the German Count von Zeppelin designed large dirigibles filled with hydrogen and it looked as though the lighter-than-air craft would have a great future. Others experimented with heavier-than-air craft lifted by means of motors and wings instead of gases.

It was not until 1903 that Wilbur and Orville Wright, two Americans, built the first successful flying machine. Just as the automobile industry grew rapidly, so did the airplane industry. European countries at first were ahead of the United States in the use of planes, despite the fact that they were an American invention. Beginning in the 1920's regular routes were established for travel and commercial purposes. The military value of the airplane caused almost the whole world to be airminded, and the

*Telephone exchanges in many large American cities make it possible for customers to place calls directly to cities in other countries. These operators are making calls to Paris, London, Lisbon, and Bogota in Colombia. A trans-oceanic radiotelephone transmitter sends the voice overseas.*

American Telephone and Telegraph Co.





future of the airplane was assured also for business and pleasure.

**Communication** In 1866 Cyrus Field succeeded in laying the first Atlantic cable. Ten years later Alexander Graham Bell, a Scotch-born American, exhibited the first telephone.

In 1896 an Italian, Guglielmo Marconi (gŭl yĕl'mŏ măr kŏ'nĕ), made the machinery for wireless telegraphy. The radio was useful to the navies of the world in the early twentieth century but there were no commercial broadcasting stations until the beginning of the 1920's. Then they sprang up in nearly every country of the world. Like the automobile, the radio was most popular in the United States, where millions of people bought radio receiving sets. Many people in Europe had access to a set. Television followed in a few years.

One of the most astounding results of the Industrial Revolution was this shrinking of space through the use of railroads, telephone, steamships, telegraphy, airplanes, radio, and television. No place was any longer isolated from any other place. This was to effect international relations vitally.

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION CHANGES BUSINESS METHODS

Before the Industrial Revolution, manufacturing had been done in the home by hand. In the early days of the Industrial Revolution small factories were set up. Then came further change. Business men saw advantages in consolidating their enterprises by pooling their wealth and replacing many small plants with a few large factories. While some men preferred to work on a small scale, more and more men were willing to be part owners of a large business that hired thousands of employees. These large factories proved to be efficient and products were made more cheaply.

Such factories could afford to hire men who spent all their time studying ways and

*Boxes of chicken on a moving belt are being inspected under strictly sanitary conditions. This is the assembly-line technique for handling products efficiently.*

Courtesy General Foods



1. Why did the Industrial Revolution stimulate road and canal building?
2. Tell what contribution each of the following men made in the field of transportation: George Stephenson, Robert Fulton, Henry Ford, Charles Goodyear, Wilbur and Orville Wright.
3. Tell of the development of the railroads in the United States.
4. What is an assembly line?
5. In the field of communication what did each of the following men contribute: Cyrus Field, Alexander Graham Bell, Guglielmo Marconi?



Monkmeier

*Government researchers exercise these pure-blooded bulls for two hours on a custom-built wheel. In the foreground is a bull brought from India for crossing with American cattle.*

means of cutting down expenses, of turning out more work per man, and in seeking more markets for their products. Because of their efficiency, large businesses could often undersell smaller ones and take their business from them. In more and more industrial fields, therefore, the trend was toward big business but small businesses continued to prosper in many countries.

### Development of Specialties

Under the domestic system the products were usually made from start to finish in one place and by one man. The factory system changed that. Each man was given a small job to do, and often he knew little about the other jobs that went into making the finished product.

The individual worker was not the only specialist. Factories developed specialties also. There are hundreds of parts in one automobile. Often a large factory makes only one part. Some factories make screws, some make batteries, some bodies, some tires, and some engines. Then these parts are brought together and assembled in another factory. In this way parts are turned out not only by the dozens, but by the millions.

### Spread of the Industrial Revolution

Although the Industrial Revolution began in Great Britain, it was not confined there. Inventive genius is never the monopoly of one nation. Other nations made their contributions, too. Then, too, the knowledge of industrial methods spread to other parts of the world. Business men in Japan, Russia, Manchuria, India, South Africa, and Eastern Europe learned and put into use new methods. Factories in the twentieth century came to be established near the sources of raw materials no matter in what parts of the world they were found. Other factories were built in the vicinity of the consumer. Henry Ford of the United States built automobile factories in Great Britain, France, Germany, Canada, and other countries. And so the Industrial Revolution spread until most of the people of the earth knew and experienced in their daily lives the fruits of that great upheaval, probably the greatest revolution the world had ever known.

1. What were some of the advantages of big businesses over small businesses?
2. How did these advantages affect the trend in the size of businesses?



Monkmeyer

*Modern farming methods include contour plowing (plowing around a hill instead of up and down) to prevent erosion. When a hill is plowed up and down, the plow leaves furrows through which water from rainstorms runs and washes off the soil.*

3. As the Industrial Revolution progressed, how did it change each of the following: the work of one man, the work of one factory, the situation of factories?

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION CHANGES AGRICULTURE

Starting in the early eighteenth century, an Agricultural Revolution accompanied the Industrial Revolution. Some of the causes that stimulated the one helped promote the other. Many of the scientists and inventors who brought about changes in industry were also active in dealing with the problems of agriculture. As progress was made in one field, effects were noticeable in the other.

Like the Industrial Revolution, the Agricultural Revolution started in England. The English mercantile policy emphasized self-sufficiency. England was trying to feed and clothe herself. Tariff walls were raised to keep out foreign raw materials. Rapid population growth made it urgent that England should either increase her agricultural production or else change her policy. The numerous wars during the eighteenth century which demanded both men and ma-

terials made increased demands on both the factory and the farm. As the factory system expanded, cities grew and more people became less self-supporting. Those who remained on the farms had to raise more food and clothing materials to take care of the city dwellers. Furthermore, the factories with their increasing capacity to produce were calling for more raw materials.

In order to increase agricultural production, farmers had to adopt more scientific methods and develop more efficient equipment. For centuries men had farmed to get food to eat; but now men were investing in farms to make profits. Profits could be made only if the amount of labor per acre was reduced and the yield per acre was increased. Since only the wealthier landowners had time and money for experimentation, most of the early advances were made by "gentleman farmers."

**Seed Drill** Jethro Tull (1674-1740), an English gentleman, learned how to distinguish between good and bad seed. He also observed that thin sowing and frequent cultivation produced a greater yield. To accomplish this purpose, Tull invented a seed drill that would distribute the seeds



evenly in rows that were far enough apart to be cultivated.

A friend of Jethro Tull, Viscount Townsend (1674-1738), worked out an efficient and popular system of crop rotation. By planting wheat, turnips, barley, and clover in successive years on the same piece of land he was able to keep the soil rich without letting the land lie idle for a season, as had been the practice. By this method Townsend was able to double the yield per acre.

### **Improved Animals and Plants**

Later in the eighteenth century another Englishman, Robert Bakewell, tried to improve the quality of cattle, horses, and sheep by selective breeding. He was able to produce cattle that not only yielded milk but also provided meat, and sheep that could be used for mutton as well as wool. Since Bakewell's time, scientists have found other ways of breeding healthier animals.

Botanists have also been successful in creating new and better strains of plant life. An American botanist, Luther Burbank (1849-1924), although unschooled, was able to produce new varieties of plants on his California farm. By inbreeding plants that possessed certain desirable characteristics, a new variety was created. The Burbank potato was only one of more than a hundred such achievements.

### **Improved Land**

Until 1840 farmers followed a hit-or-miss method of fertilizing their soil. But in that year the German chemist, Justus von Liebig (fōn lē'bik), published a book in which he showed that the basic plant foods were potash, nitrogen, and phosphorus. By adding quantities of those substances, the fertility of the soil could be restored or increased. Commercial fertilizers are now widely used.

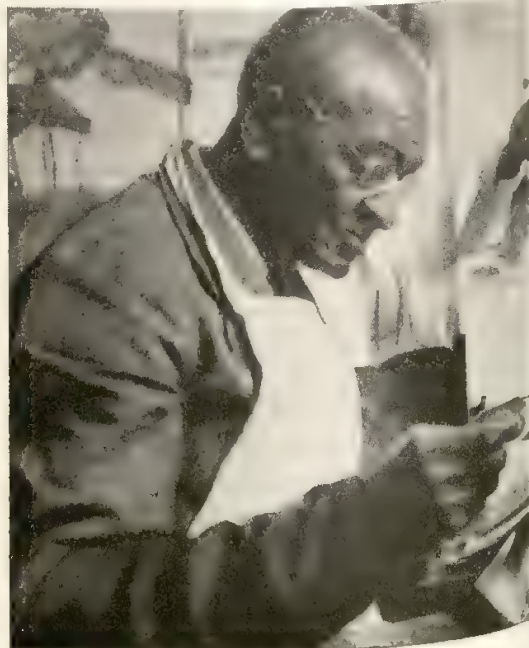
As population increased, the various nations of the world tried to make more of their acres arable. It required some engineering skill to drain the lowlands of northern Europe and to irrigate the drylands of the western United States and Australia, but that was widely done.

### **Improved Farm Machinery**

Labor-saving machinery came to be applied to agriculture as more farm production was needed for industrial machines. The cotton gin was a response by Eli Whitney to the new spinning and weaving machinery of Hargreaves, Crompton, and Arkwright. The scarcity of hired labor in America accounts in part for the leadership of Americans in producing farm machinery. Cyrus H. McCormick invented the mechanical reaper, and John F. Appleby made it more useful by adding the twine binder. About the same time, other inventors were introducing the horse-drawn hay rake, the

*The famous scientist, George Washington Carver, developed new and amazing uses for the lowly peanut and sweet potato.*

Brown Brothers



threshing machine, the steel plow, and the disc harrow. Later the steam engine, the gasoline engine, and the electric motor were harnessed to farm machinery, replacing the horse and speeding up farm work.

### **New Ways of Preserving and Using Farm Products**

Inventions were made for processing farm products and speeding them to market. The canning industry got its start in France during the Napoleonic Wars. Late in the nineteenth century refrigeration machinery made possible the shipment of perishable foods over long distances by railroad and ship and the storage of those "fresh" foods until needed. The invention of the cream separator and the work of the Frenchman Louis Pasteur (pasteurization) improved the making of butter and cheese. Chemists were able to widen the market for certain farm crops by analyzing them and finding new uses for them. For example, the American Negro scientist, George Washington Carver (1864-1943), demonstrated that more than one hundred different products could be made from the sweet potato and more than three hundred from the peanut.

**Arthur Young** It took quite some time before the discoveries and creations of the agriculturists and inventors came into general use. Arthur Young (1744-1820) was a gentleman farmer of England who popularized the "new agriculture." He toured England, Ireland, and France to examine the current farming methods and wrote several books on what he saw. Young was instrumental in the creation of a British Board of Agriculture whose purpose was to spread new ideas among farmers. Later in the nineteenth

century every major country formed a Ministry (or Department) of Agriculture. They proceeded to set up experimental stations, study plant and soil problems, and issue pamphlets and books containing their findings. National and local governments established agricultural schools where the scientific approach to farming might be more thoroughly learned.

1. Where did the Agricultural Revolution begin? Why there?
2. Name the leaders in the changes and advances made in agricultural methods and machines and tell what each did.
3. What changes came about in the methods of preserving foods?
4. Who was Arthur Young?

### **QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION**

1. From the point of view of the individual worker, is the factory system or the domestic system better?

2. What are some of the drawbacks of the assembly line to the workers?

3. One of the great spiritual and political leaders of India objected to the industrialization of his country. Can you see why?

4. In what sense of the word can we call "heroes" men who made and put into effect important developments in industry, transportation, and communication?

5. Does "big business" limit or aid free enterprise?

6. Has the Industrial Revolution increased the happiness of mankind?

7. Why was the Agricultural Revolution slower than the Industrial Revolution in developing?

8. In what sense is agriculture a basic industry even in an industrialized country like Great Britain, Japan, or the United States?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

- Agricultural Revolution • assembly line • big business • capital • cotton gin • domestic system • disc harrow • factory system • flying shuttle • Industrial Revolution • mass production • reaper • rotation of crops • spinning jenny • spinning mule • water frame • threshing machine •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

It is not important to learn the dates of inventions mentioned in this chapter, but become familiar with the *centuries* of the Industrial Revolution.

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

- Albany, N.Y. • Canada • France • Germany • Great Britain • India • Japan • Johannesburg • London • Manchuria • Moscow • New York City • Russia • South Africa • Tokyo • Vladivostok • Washington, D.C. •

Show the routes of the following railroads:

- Trans-Siberian Railroad • railroad from Cairo to Johannesburg • first transcontinental railroad in the United States • partly built Berlin to Baghdad railroad •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

- John Appleby • Richard Arkwright • Robert Bakewell • Alexander Graham Bell • Henry Bessemer • Luther Burbank • Edmund Cartwright • George Washington Carver • Samuel Crompton • Leonardo Da Vinci • Henry Ford • Robert Fulton • Charles Goodyear • James Hargreaves • John Kay • Justus von Liebig • John Macadam • Guglielmo Marconi • Cyrus McCormick • Thomas Newcomen • Louis Pasteur • Samuel Slater • George Stephenson • Viscount Townsend • Jethro Tull • James Watt • Eli Whitney • Orville Wright • Wilbur Wright • Arthur Young

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Write an imaginary conversation between the following persons to read to the class:

- a. A modern farmer and a person who lives in a part of the world not yet affected by the Agricultural Revolution.
- b. A weaver who worked in his home in 1770 and one who worked in a textile factory.
- c. An aviator and a man who has never flown.
- d. A railroad engineer and a boy who has never ridden on a railroad.

2. Invite some of the following workers to talk to the class on their careers:

- a. A Farm Bureau representative.
- b. A Four-H leader.
- c. The employment agent of a local factory.
- d. The employment agent of a local bus company.
- e. An aviator.
- f. A railroad engineer or conductor.
- g. The head of a road construction company.

The day following these talks, write a brief essay in class on *Why I want to be a . . . . .* (Your vocational ambition may be different from any discussed.)

3. Read a biography of one of the persons mentioned in this chapter whose life and work interests you and report to the class.

4. Prepare for reading to the class a five-minute radio script on one of the following topics:

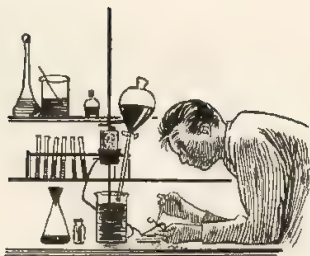
- Care of your milking machine • Spraying apple, peach, or other fruit trees • The advantages of a particular kind of reaper, mower, haybaler, or other piece of farm machinery • How the United States Department of Agriculture can help the individual farmer •

## III. At the Blackboard

1. List on the blackboard the names of all the inventors mentioned in this chapter, their nationalities, and their inventions.

2. List farm equipment that would not have been found on a farm in 1700.





## Industry and Science Alter Man's Way of Life

**P**icture, if you can, living in the days before the Industrial Revolution. Life then was very different from what it is today. For one thing, before the Industrial Revolution the family not only *lived* together in the home but *worked* together in the home. If the father was a farmer, his lands surrounded the house, and all the members of the family helped in doing the work of the farm, by hand. Each member had his tasks or chores to perform. The application of machinery to farm work changed this. Farms could now be larger, and one person with a machine could do what took several persons to do by hand.

### THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AFFECTS HOME LIFE

Families were together even less in the cities. Before the Industrial Revolution the father, who was a tailor, silversmith, or other type of craftsman, set aside one room in the house as his shop. His wife and children frequently helped him. His sons might be learning the trade. The Industrial Revolution took the father from his little shop at home to a factory.

**Slums** In many cases the family moved near the factory to be near the fa-

*Homes like these, which appeared in many coal-mining districts, are being replaced as owners and workers co-operate to increase wages, raise standards of living, and improve community life.*

Courtesy Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)



ther's work. More and more families settled around the factory in very congested quarters and poor houses. This situation produced slums, which grew rapidly wherever factories sprang up and which remain as blighted areas in many cities today.

In many cases the father was unable to earn enough to support his family because wages were very low. The mother was obliged to work, too. This brought about another problem, the lack of supervision of young children, who grew up in bad surroundings and often amid crime. The slums bred juvenile delinquents, too.

**Effects of Improved Transportation** Some improvement came with types of transportation that made it possible for workers to live farther from their work in uncrowded neighborhoods. The first means of transportation for factory work-



*Richmond, Virginia, was the first community in the United States to introduce streetcars. What means of transportation did they replace?*

ers was the streetcar. But by 1920 many workers in the United States were earning enough money to purchase automobiles to work. Then they could live on their families could their free of

smoke. This was not generally true in other countries where wages were not so high and cars were more expensive.

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION AFFECTS RECREATION

**Recreation before the Industrial Revolution** Before the Industrial Revolution most of the recreation centered around the home. Chess, checkers, blind-man's buff, and card games were common. Quilting bees, husking bees, threshing and harvesting parties offered an opportunity for mingling with one's neighbors on the frontier in America. In the cities of Europe, and to a much less degree in some American cities, very formal balls were given by the upper classes. Entertainment was provided by players who toured the chief cities of Europe giving dramas, and musicians traveled from court to court performing for invited guests. But good music and drama were available only to very few people.

**Changes in Recreation** In the late nineteenth century and in the early twentieth, good entertainment was made accessible to more people. Popularly priced plays and concerts were staged in most cities of Europe, Latin America, and the United States. The movies, radio, and television provided new types of entertainment, and these were even more accessible to the masses of the people in all industrialized countries of the world.

Just as the Industrial Revolution took the wage earners out of the home to perform their tasks, so recreation became more and more an out-of-the-home affair. Many sports were commercialized, including baseball, football, hockey, tennis, and basketball. The automobile and the movies

played a large part in this movement. Commercialized entertainment made most people *observers* rather than *participants*.

## THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION CHANGES THE STANDARD OF LIVING

**Middle Class** A young man or woman of the early eighteenth century would never have dreamed of the comforts that we take for granted today. Wage earners in America today enjoy a standard of living beyond that of a wealthy nobleman in 1800. This is true in large measure because of the Industrial Revolution.

It was the middle class who first benefited from the Industrial Revolution. Their position was based on wealth. They were usually the owners of factories, mines, and the new means of transportation and communication. Many of this group gained great wealth, built fine houses, and became prominent in the social and political life of the community. At first the rural lords of Europe looked down upon men who made their money in industry and who did not have noble blood in their veins. But as time passed, and the lords became poorer in relation to the newly rich industrialists, many of them, too, invested in manufacturing or trade. Others married their sons and daughters to the children of the newly rich.

**Workers** While the factory owners were acquiring wealth during the nineteenth century, the conditions of most workers remained very bad. Wages were low; men usually worked twelve or fifteen hours per day; young children of six or seven were often put to work in factories and mines; and women worked long hours at labor much too hard for them. There was

usually no safety, and because the lack of guards on machinery, accidents were frequent. Moreover, provisions were not made to care for the injured and sick. When peri-



*The factory system brought the evils of child labor and dangerous and unhealthy working conditions.*

ods of slack work came and the employee lost his job or was temporarily unemployed, he seldom had a way of earning money to tide him over until he had work again. The correction of all these evils required a long, hard struggle by the workers.

1. What effect did the Industrial Revolution have upon family life?
2. What was its effect upon cities?
3. How did better means of transportation improve the living conditions of people who worked in factories?
4. What were the chief means of recreation in the days before the Industrial Revolution?
5. How did the Industrial Revolution change recreation?
6. Has the Industrial Revolution destroyed the importance of the home?
7. Who were the first people to enjoy the fruits of the Industrial Revolution? Why?
8. What were the conditions of work in the factories in the early days of the factory system?





## WORKERS TRY TO SOLVE THEIR PROBLEMS

### Formation of Labor Unions

It was in Great Britain that the workers were first active in finding some means of solving their problems. They knew that they would either have to unite and make demands on their employers or get political action. It was difficult for wage earners to take political action because they were not allowed to vote or hold office. It was not easy for them to unite into labor unions either, because in 1800 Parliament had forbidden unions. The leaders in Parliament feared that unions might imitate the French Jacobin clubs and promote a revolution. Anyway, they said, unions sometimes bring about strikes, and strikes interrupt commerce and industry. However, workers organized secretly in violation of the law.

In 1825 some of the liberals who sympathized with the workers persuaded Parliament to permit workmen to form unions. Soon after, many craft unions sprang up. In 1834 they tried to gain added strength by combining into a national union whose chief interest was the eight-hour day. The national union fell apart during the depression of the late 1830's. Not until the

1850's did unions regain their strength, but by 1900 there were many in Great Britain.

Labor unions grew rapidly on the continent of Europe. They were legalized in France in 1875. Early unions in the United States were not very successful, but in 1881 the American Federation of Labor was founded and became powerful. Some labor unions were led by radicals and made unjust demands of employers, but for the most part that was not true. An eight-hour day, the right to bargain as a group, or collectively, with the employer, more sanitary and safer working conditions, better wages, and no child labor were their chief demands in most countries.

### Political Rights for Workers

Many labor leaders in Great Britain believed that workers would never obtain their demands unless they gained political rights and forced Parliament to pass laws in their favor. The Chartists, under working-class leadership, drew up a *People's Charter*, which they wanted Parliament to pass. It demanded for the workers such political privileges as voting and office-holding. If workers could obtain those powers they could elect their friends to Parliament and get laws passed protecting their interests. The Chartist movement collapsed in 1848. Not until the Reform Act of 1867 were workers of Great Britain allowed to vote.

The United States and the industrialized countries on the continent of Europe also became more democratic by permitting men to vote regardless of religious or property qualifications.

### Legislation for Social Betterment

With the right to vote and hold office in their hands, the workers now pressed for social legislation that would improve their

working and living conditions. Germany took the lead in social legislation. During the 1880's Chancellor von Bismarck had laws passed providing for accident insurance, child labor regulations, maximum hour laws, old age insurance, and government inspection and supervision of factories and mines. Other countries copied Germany's attempt to aid labor. In Great Britain leaders like Winston Churchill and Lloyd George were successful in having Parliament pass a number of laws to improve the conditions of labor. Among them were a minimum wage law for certain industries; insurance against the ill effects of sickness, unemployment, and old age; and a slum clearance program. In the United States certain states took the lead in prohibiting child labor, in compelling employers to insure their workers against accidents, and in limiting the hours of work.

**Advances in Education** Most workers also saw the need for better education for their children. In many European countries and in Japan and the United States free public education was provided at least through the elementary school. In the United States most states also provided for free public high school education. The People's High Schools in Denmark were attended at night by thousands of adults.

In the late nineteenth century the movement for free public libraries spread rapidly in the United States, and most cities and many towns opened libraries to all citizens.

As Japan became industrialized, she provided schools and passed compulsory school attendance laws.

Like other social legislation, laws providing for schools were largely confined to the industrialized nations. It is estimated that in Russia in 1912 only seven per cent of the

population could read and write. In Latin America, school systems existed in the cities only and only for the well-to-do. In China and India few besides the wealthy were able to read and write.

**Houses Built by Employers** In many countries slum clearance and housing programs were begun in the last half of the nineteenth century. Owners of factories found that persons living under unhealthy conditions had less energy and did poorer work than healthy persons coming from comfortable, clean homes. In Britain, Germany, and the Scandinavian countries, companies built houses for their workers.

**Slum Clearance** Gradually the public awakened to the fact that slums were costly to everybody in the community. Fire, police, and health protection often cost many times as much in slum districts as in other districts. Furthermore, there was agitation among thinking people who had

*In every country interested in improved living conditions, small, neat houses gradually replaced slum dwellings.*

Ewing Galloway





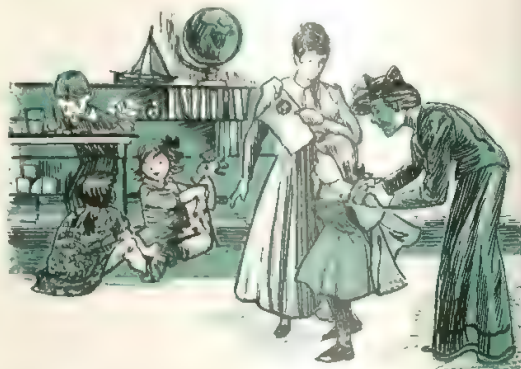
the best interests of children and adults at heart. Gradually, national, state, and city governments took up the problem, and by the early twentieth century an effort was being made in many industrial countries to remedy the situation. Six European countries stood out as leaders in this movement. They were Great Britain, France, Germany, Austria, Sweden, and The Netherlands. Most of the new houses were erected either by the government or with government aid. It was not until the middle of the 1930's that such a program was begun in the United States. In all these countries thousands of blocks of slums were wiped out and modern sanitary buildings erected.

An important point in connection with the new building program was that cities were *planned*. Formerly, most cities simply grew without design or plan. Under the new system zones were set for factories, business districts, and residences. Provisions were made for transportation, parks, gardens, and trees for health and beauty.

**Co-operatives** Forming unions and working for social legislation were not the only ways by which workers attempted to improve their condition. The co-operative movement started in Rochdale, England, in 1844, when a group of linen weavers collected \$140 and opened their own store. They did \$4,000 worth of business the first year on which they made \$160 in profits. This was divided among the owners in proportion to the amount they had bought. The co-operative was planned to reduce the cost of living by buying directly from the manufacturer at wholesale prices and retailing to the workers without any middlemen's profits.

The co-operative movement spread rapidly. It brought more prosperity to many

workers and farmers in Western Europe and in the United States. It was in the Scandinavian countries, however, that co-operatives were most successful. Some were founded so that small farmers could pool



*What advantages to the entire community were the result of nurseries for the children of working mothers?*

their eggs, butter, and other products for marketing abroad. Banking and manufacturing co-operatives also were very successful.

**The Rise of Socialism** There were people in many countries who believed that the workingmen's troubles came principally from the industrial system and the relation between employers and employees. One of these was Robert Owen, an English manufacturer. To show what could be done under his system, Owen turned the slum community of New Lanark, Scotland, into a model community. In New Lanark the workers and managers shared in the ownership and the profits of the industry carried on there. This community was such a success that Owen started others elsewhere, including one which did not succeed, on the American frontier in Indiana. Owen and other men who thought as he did were often called Utopian Socialists.



In France, the writers Charles Fourier (fōō ry ā) and Claude Henri Saint-Simon (săn sē'môn) proposed that the government manage the wealth and distribute it among the people. During the Revolution of 1848 Louis Blanc proposed that the city of Paris set up workshops for the unemployed. An attempt to do so ended in failure.

It was in 1848 also that two leading German Socialists, Karl Marx (1818-1883) and Friedrich Engels, published a pamphlet called the *Communist Manifesto*. In this they gave their view as to why workers were downtrodden and what hope they had to improve their condition. At that time, very little was heard of the *Communist Manifesto*.

In 1867, Marx and Engels published the first of three volumes entitled *Das Kapital*. In great detail they explained in these books their theories, which were known as Marxian Socialism, or Communism. *Das Kapital* was based on the idea that all people belong to one of two classes: capitalists or workers. Marx and Engels said the workers were the source of all wealth, and that in order to get their share, the workers must organize and use revolution, if necessary.

Karl Marx organized the International Workingmen's Association in 1864 in an attempt to get the workers of all countries to destroy capitalism. This organization became known as the First International. The First International never had a large membership and died in 1876. It was replaced a few years later by the Second International. These organizations inspired Socialists to advocate violence in overthrowing governments.

In nearly every country the socialists organized political parties to promote Marxian ideas. Between 1875 and 1906, Socialist parties were formed in Germany,

Belgium, Austria, France, Russia, Great Britain, and the United States. By the beginning of the twentieth century, Socialist parties were prominent in most countries of Europe. By that time, too, they counted in their ranks not only workers but people from many other groups who were seeking a solution to the problems they felt came with the Industrial Revolution.

The Social Democratic party organized in Russia in the late nineteenth century. This party held some of its meetings in London. At one of these meetings, in 1910, the party split into two factions. One faction, the Mensheviki, believed that socialist aims should be achieved by gradual steps. The other faction, the Bolsheviki, later known as the Communist party, led by Nicholas Lenin, believed that revolution and force were the only effective weapons.

Since 1910, Communists have claimed to foresee the time when war would so weaken the capitalistic countries that the Communists could overthrow their governments and seize control. Many of the efforts of the Communists were and are directed toward the undermining of governments in free countries. Lenin and other Communists claimed that a "dictatorship of the proletariat" would give the workers control of government and wealth. We now know that "the dictatorship of the proletariat" is a false and vicious idea. As practiced in Russia, Lenin's beliefs have deprived the workers of freedom, religion, and a decent standard of living. Communism has also denied to the people the privilege of free elections and of course the right to criticize their officials. The world is now paying a tragic price because Communists had an opportunity to put their theories into effect in Russia not many years after the advent of Bolshevism.

1. What gains were made for labor unions in the early nineteenth century?
2. What were the aims of the Chartists?
3. Why were workers able to get laws passed to improve their condition? What were these laws?
4. What were the aims of the co-operative movement? In what countries was it most successful?
5. What parts did Owen, Fourier, Saint-Simon, and Blanc play in the rise of socialism?
6. Where did strong socialist parties develop?
7. Who were Karl Marx and Friedrich Engels? What theories did they have about the workingman's difficulties?
8. What were the First and Second International?
9. How did the Bolshevik, or Communist, party come into existence in Russia? Who was its leader and what were his beliefs?

## STUDENTS OF NATURE PUT FORTH NEW THEORIES

Not all the inventions and discoveries of the eighteenth, nineteenth, and twentieth centuries were concerned with machinery and tools. Experimentation in *natural* science produced many startling new discoveries. Many of these discoveries had some direct or indirect bearing upon industry, but they were not all the result of conscious efforts to create a machine that would lighten the burden of laborers or speed up production. Many were aimed at problems of health and the secrets of the physical world.

**Naturalists** In the eighteenth century there was less specialization in the study of science than there is today. Instead of geology, physiography, botany, zoology, and other "ologies" that are familiar today,

scientists studied nature under the general term of "natural science."

Perhaps the most famous of these men were Alexander von Humboldt (hŏm'-bôlt) (1769-1859) and Louis Agassiz (ăg'ă-sē) (1807-1873). Von Humboldt studied in England, France, and Germany. Then for five years he led an expedition to Central and South America where he studied the climate, people, vegetation, and animal life. In his old age he wrote a work in five volumes, *Cosmos*, summarizing the knowledge of science in his day. It is one of the world's great scientific works.

Agassiz, a friend of von Humboldt, was born in Switzerland. He came to the United States to lecture after a thorough training in medicine in German universities. In America he continued his studies of fish, glaciers, and other phases of nature and became recognized as a world authority. As a teacher at Harvard, Agassiz encouraged the study of natural science in America.

*Humboldt measures the velocity of sound. Among his other achievements was a climatic map of the world.*

Bettmann Archive



**Sir Charles Lyell** After the middle of the nineteenth century specialization increased. Sir Charles Lyell (1797–1875), an English geologist of great ability, wrote a book, *Principles of Geology*, which showed how changes taking place in the earth's surface today by the action of rain, rivers, glaciers, volcanoes, and winds could easily explain why the surface of the earth came to assume its present form. In his search for evidence, Lyell made two trips to the United States, where he studied fossils and the structure of rocks. He convinced his fellow scientists that the world was not created six thousand years ago, as was popularly believed, but that the world is many millions of years old.

**Charles Darwin** Perhaps the most noted scientist of the nineteenth century was the Englishman, Charles Darwin (1809–1882). Darwin had worried his father by doing badly in school. Instead of doing his “home work,” he spent his time gathering and studying plant specimens from the countryside. When his father urged him to go to college, the young Darwin decided instead to go on a surveying expedition around the world. His trip took him to out-of-the-way places where he gathered specimens of all types of life. He studied for years before producing in 1859 his most famous and important book, *On the Origin of Species by Means of Natural Selection*. Later he wrote *The Descent of Man*.

In these books Darwin stated his theory of evolution, a theory that the different species found in the world were not all created at different times but that they all sprang from a single source. He collected fossils and other evidence to support this conclusion. In this way Charles Darwin studied nature *historically*. The historical method

has since helped scientists to explain many mysteries of nature. Darwin went on to say that since there were in the world at any one time more of a species than could find



At the age of 21, Darwin obtained the best education for his life work—he sailed around the world to study nature in many different areas.

food, those forms that had the best qualities for survival lasted and the others died out through the centuries in the struggle for existence. That is called the theory of “the survival of the fittest.”

Darwin's theories were not entirely new in the world. His own grandfather had had a theory of evolution. The French scientist, Lamarck, also had explained a doctrine of evolution fifty years before. Darwin, however, collected a good deal of evidence for the theory. He was also a good writer and could popularize his theory. More recent studies have pointed out some flaws in Darwin's ideas, but his book did much to change man's thinking about nature.

1. What was a “naturalist”?
2. Who were Louis Agassiz and Alexander von Humboldt?
3. What change did Lyell bring about in man's thinking regarding the world?
4. What was the theory of evolution? Who formulated it?
5. What books were written by Lyell, von Humboldt, and Darwin?



## NEW DISCOVERIES IN PHYSICS

**The Electric Light** Most discoveries and inventions have been the result of the work of several persons. Take, for instance, the electric light bulb. As far back as the middle of the eighteenth century Benjamin Franklin discovered that lightning and electricity are the same thing, and about the year 1800 the Italian, Count Volta, invented an electric battery. Many men carried on experiments trying to learn more about this mysterious force of nature. Further experimentation was made by Sir Humphry Davy, who learned the principle of electric lighting. But it was not until 1879 that the American, Thomas Edison, patented the electric light bulb.

The electric light was only one of Edison's many inventions. Fifteen hundred new products or processes were the result, in whole or in part, of his creative genius.

**The Telegraph and Telephone** Americans carried on studies in other fields as well. Samuel F. B. Morse, an artist and scientist, applied electricity to the telegraph in 1844.

Alexander Graham Bell came to the United States from Scotland to teach the deaf. His interest in the human voice prompted him to make experiments which led to his invention of the telephone in 1876.

**Dynamo** Another important step forward was the invention of the dynamo. Michael Faraday was the son of a London blacksmith and was apprenticed to a bookseller. Faraday had very little formal schooling, but he had an opportunity in his job to read widely and he took advantage of it, studying by himself. His studies awakened in him a desire to become a scientist. He asked Sir Humphry Davy for a job. Faraday soon surpassed Davy, and at the age of thirty-four became the head of the Royal Institute of Great Britain. There he followed his research in the practical application of electricity. Five years later he invented an electric dynamo. While his dynamo was not of practical use, Faraday had established the principle, and he went on to other studies, leaving it to others to make his invention work. This they did about 1870. The dynamo brought about a



*Michael Faraday, an Englishman, and Joseph Henry, an American, discovered at about the same time the principle on which electric motors are built. Here Faraday demonstrates his dynamo.*

great change in the distribution of power. Now the energy created in one place could be used miles away.

## ADVANCES ARE MADE IN THE STUDY OF THE HUMAN BODY

**Anesthetics** Out of the study of chemistry and physics came the first types of anesthetics. One was discovered by Davy and one by Faraday early in the nineteenth century. The anesthetic properties of ether were noted by Faraday in 1818 and used in surgery by Dr. Crawford W. Long of Jefferson, Georgia, in 1842, and by Dr. W. T. G. Morton, a Boston dentist, in 1846 in an operation performed by Dr. J. C. Warren.

**Antiseptics** The foremost man in the field of antiseptics was an English surgeon, Joseph Lister. He experimented in the use of carbolic acid to prevent infection, which had made surgery so dangerous up to that time. He brought to surgery the principles of the French chemist, Louis Pasteur (1822-1895), who a little earlier had made experiments which led to his discovery of microbes as a cause of disease. The findings of Lister and Pasteur revolutionized medicine.

**Vaccination** Another advance in medicine came when it was learned that persons' bodies could be immunized against certain diseases. Edward Jenner (1749-1823) discovered the use of vaccination against smallpox. The German physician Robert Koch (1843-1910) found the bacillus that causes cholera. His discovery led other physicians to study the bacilli causing other diseases such as lockjaw, malaria, and diphtheria. This knowledge introduced a new



United Nations

*A little maid of Ceylon is being vaccinated against tuberculosis under Ceylon government and UN auspices.*

approach to the whole problem of medicine. Physicians started to work to prevent disease instead of just curing it after it had attacked.

**X ray** The X ray was discovered by a German scientist, Wilhelm Roentgen (rônt'gên), who worked on it after his teaching day in the university. One afternoon as he worked in his laboratory he noticed that the rays from the tube with which he was working could pass through solid substances. He worked hard to investigate what he had by chance found. The result of his labors was the application of the X ray to the science of medicine. Doctors were able to find the condition of broken bones, the roots of teeth, and the interior of parts of the body through X ray. Roentgen had made one of the very important contributions to medical science. X rays, or Roentgen rays, are important in the treatment of some diseases also.



Courtesy American Cancer Society

The cancer "donut" is the radiation equivalent to twelve million dollars worth of radium. Rays from the radioactive unit at the left penetrate to the deep-seated cancer and destroy the diseased cells.

**Radium** In 1898, a French scientist, Pierre Curie, and his Polish wife, Marie Curie, discovered that radium could be extracted from the mineral called pitchblende. Radium became important in the treatment of some diseases, including cancer.

**A Changed World** In these and many other areas, science changed the world. Discoveries and inventions aided health, lifted from the shoulders of workmen burdens that they had formerly borne, and in general made life easier, pleasanter, and more interesting. Mankind had traveled a long, long way from the Stone Age. The Scientific Age was here.

1. What contributions did each of the following men make to science: Samuel F. B. Morse, Thomas Edison, Wilhelm von Roentgen, Pierre and Marie Curie, Benjamin Franklin, Humphry Davy, and Michael Faraday?
2. Which men of the nineteenth century discovered the use of anesthetics?
3. Mention the contributions of Joseph Lister, Louis Pasteur, Edward Jenner, Robert Koch.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the advantages of a closely knit family? Are there any disadvantages?
2. Why are slums costly to a community? Can you give an example?
3. Compare the benefits of professional athletics with those of amateur athletics.
4. How has the automobile brought changes in the unity of the family?
5. Do you agree that the family is one of the "basic institutions" of life?
6. Is the standard of living of a family always determined by its income?
7. What are some advantages of private enterprise over government ownership of industry?
8. Which is the more accurate term: compulsory school attendance or compulsory education? Why?
9. Why is the following saying of Thomas Jefferson true? "If a nation expects to be ignorant and free in a state of civilization, it expects what never was and never will be."
10. Give examples from birds, insects, or other animals of features they have developed that have helped the species to survive.
11. Do you agree with the following quotation from Pasteur? "I hold the unconquerable



belief that Science and Peace will triumph over Ignorance and War, that nations will come together, not to destroy but to construct, and that the future belongs to those who accomplish most for humanity."

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• Christian Socialists • Communism • Communist Manifesto • co-operative • "dictatorship of the proletariat" • evolution • First International • natural sciences • People's Charter • Second International • "survival of the fittest" • Utopian Socialists •

#### 2. Places to locate on the map:

• Austria • Belgium • Boston, Massachusetts • France • Germany • Great Britain • Indiana • Russia • Scotland •

#### 3. Can you identify these persons?

• Louis Agassiz • Marie Curie • Pierre Curie • Charles Darwin • Humphry Davy • Thomas Edison • Friedrich Engels • Michael Faraday • Cyrus Field • Charles Fourier • Benjamin Franklin • Alexander von Humboldt • Edward Jenner • Robert Koch • Nicholas Lenin • Joseph Lister • Sir Charles Lyell • Karl Marx • Sir Thomas More • W. T. G. Morton • Samuel F. B. Morse • Robert Owen • Louis Pasteur • Wilhelm von Roentgen • Claude Henri Saint-Simon • Count Volta •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Write the names of the utensils and equipment found in your kitchen that would not have been in the kitchen of even a wealthy person in 1750.

Make a list of six conveniences you use daily that people of 1750 did not have. Bring your lists to class for comparison.

2. Report to the class orally on one of the following topics:

- What plans your community officials have for zoning.
- What slum clearance has been done, or needs to be done, in your community.
- The plan on which the city of Washington, D. C., was laid out.
- The history of education in your community.
- The history of your school.
- The effects in the past of some disease, like smallpox, that is now controlled.
- The purpose of the United States Patent Office.

3. If you like to write, prepare an essay to read to the class on *My Responsibility in the Home* or *The Essentials of Good Family Life*.

4. Write an imaginary conversation that you might have with a "Rip Van Winkle" who slept for two hundred years and awoke just at the time you entered your sophomore year in high school.

5. List some of the diseases of today whose control is yet to be found.

### III. At the Blackboard

1. Select a sport or form of recreation in which you are especially interested. Outline its history on the blackboard. Or explain to the class by a diagram on the blackboard the way the game is played.

2. List the means, other than schools, through which you can get an education.

### IV. Class Committee Work

Appoint a committee to visit the Board of Health, the mayor, or the school nurse to get a list of all the agencies in your community that care for the sick. Show each of these on a map of your community or county.

### V. A Cartoon

Draw a cartoon showing some impression made on a typical citizen when he uses a telephone for the first time, sees the first horseless carriages, hears the first "talking machine" record, or uses some other new invention.



## 31 *The New Industry and Science Affect Literature and the Arts*

**W**hat happens in one department of life affects all others. No such world-shaking changes as the industrial, agricultural, political, and scientific revolutions could have occurred without affecting literature and the arts. While the capitalists were trying to figure out better ways of producing and selling, and workers and farmers were trying to increase their earnings, and inventors and scientists were studying the physical world, the writers, painters, and architects of the time were expressing themselves.

### **SOME WRITERS FOLLOW THE ROMANTIC MOOD**

The mode in literature and the arts of the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries was called *romanticism*. The romanticists had many sources of inspiration, but they all used their imagination and were more interested in expressing their emotions than in reproducing mere facts. Some writers, painters, and architects turned to the past for their subjects, especially to the Middle Ages, as Sir Walter Scott did in *Ivanhoe*, or as Tennyson did in his *Idylls of the King*.

"Make me thy knight, because I know,  
Sir King,  
All that belongs to knighthood, and to love."

Others stirred the emotions by picturing the conditions of the poor and downtrodden. Still others turned to nature for inspiration. Here Shelley pays a poetic tribute to the sky lark.

Hail to thee, blithe spirit!  
Bird thou never wert,  
That from heaven, or near it,  
Pourest thy full heart  
In profuse strains of unpremeditated art.



Romanticists sometimes used nationalism or patriotism as a theme, as did William Collins in this song to soldiers slain in their country's service.

How sleep the brave who sink to rest  
By all their country's wishes blest!  
When Spring, with dewy fingers cold,  
Returns to deck their hallow'd mould,  
She there shall dress a sweeter sod  
Than Fancy's feet have ever trod.

William Wordsworth was a poet of simple country life who spent hours walking through the lovely lake country of England. He wrote of the things he saw as he walked: "a host of daffodils" dancing in the breeze, or

A violet by a mossy stone  
Half hidden from the eye.

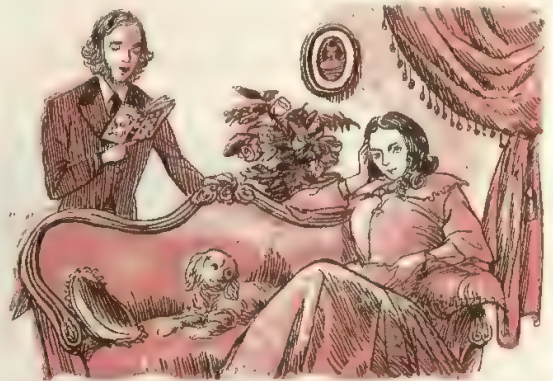
Another English romanticist, Robert Browning, spent much of his life in Italy. He studied Italian Renaissance art and wrote poems about the people of the day. He revolted against the conventional form of poetry and used much freer forms of verse.

The year's at the spring,  
And day's at the morn;  
Morning's at seven;  
The hill-side's dew-pearled;  
The lark's on the wing;  
The snail's on the thorn;  
God's in His heaven—  
All's right with the world!

Whatever the subject they chose, the romantic poets revolted against the stiff form of early eighteenth-century poetry, and many of them contributed, through their poetry, to the struggle for freedom in their countries. The spirit of reform in the German states inspired German poets, too. Two of these were Johann Wolfgang von Goethe (gû'tě) and Johann Schiller. Goethe was a many-sided genius, but his greatest literary work was the dramatic poem *Faust*, based on a medieval legend.

Schiller was a critic, dramatist, and poet. His most noted work was *William Tell* which, like *Faust*, has been made into an opera. Many of Schiller's writings were pleas for freedom and human liberty. He inspired the German liberals of his day.

**Romantic Novelists** The novel was a new literary form in the eighteenth century, but it did not become popular with the reading public until the nineteenth century. Some of the best novels were written in England during this period. Sir Walter Scott's novels were based on the history of the Middle Ages. Among his most widely read are *Ivanhoe* and *Kenilworth*. Charles Dickens, on the other hand, wrote stories not only to entertain but to depict in emotional fashion the lot of the toiling children and the debtors in English prisons. Or he pictured the poor schools of his day in a way that made his readers take notice. George Eliot, one of the first women to gain fame as a novelist, wrote under this assumed name about people in ordinary circumstances or about the poor and afflicted. The Frenchman, Victor Hugo, pictured in forceful, colorful language the miseries of the people about him. Another Frenchman, Alexandre Dumas (dü má'), wrote historical novels, notably *The Three Musketeers*.



Robert Browning reads his poetry to Elizabeth Barrett, also a poet, whom he later married.

The spirit of romanticism spread to Russia following Russian contacts with the Germans and the English during the Napoleonic Wars. The nationalistic spirit was



reflected in the work of Russia's first great writer, Alexander Pushkin. Pushkin wrote about Russia's early heroes and the exploits of Peter the Great in his defeat of the Swedes. Another romantic Russian writer was Turgenev (tōōr gā nyěf), who described the pathetic scenes that he witnessed among the poor and underprivileged people of his native country. His writings were a part of the revolutionary spirit brewing in Russia.

Romanticism spread to other countries, too; the United States, Scandinavia, The Netherlands, Poland, and Spain all produced their romantic literature. History, nationalism, social reform, and a love of nature served as themes in whatever country romantic writing flourished.

## REALISM FOLLOWS ROMANTICISM

**Realism** The spirit of romanticism continued, but in the late nineteenth century some writers and artists turned to a new mood of *realism*. The realists covered none of their subjects with glamour or fancy. They attempted to show life just as it

existed, but they often chose to concentrate on the ugly, vulgar, and defective rather than on the good and beautiful which existed along with the bad.

**Writers** Realism, like romanticism, was not confined to any one country. The Frenchman Anatole France (1844-1924) saw so many evils and such stupidity around him that he did not have much hope in man's ability to make this a better world. His pessimism about the influence of religion was brought out in his novel *The Revolt of the Angels*. Thomas Hardy described in his novels the meager existence for which the English peasants and villagers had to work so hard. *The Mayor of Casterbridge* was one of several novels which he wrote on that theme. Later an Irishman, George Bernard Shaw, wrote in many literary forms, all commenting on life, but he is best known for his plays. They were entertaining, and at the same time they focused attention on social problems. H. G. Wells, an English science teacher, turned to writing novels about the wonders of science

*A scene from Man and Superman by George Bernard Shaw, who wrote it to comment on social customs of the early twentieth century. Shaw was popular as a music and drama critic before he began writing plays himself.*

Courtesy Maurice Evans



yet to come. He was optimistic about ridding this world of evils, and he described a more wholesome world than we know in *A Modern Utopia*. The Norwegian-born Henrik Ibsen became internationally famous for his plays. *A Doll's House* was one of many that called social problems to public attention. Count Leo Tolstoy, a Russian aristocrat, became greatly concerned about improving the life of the Russian peasants. Although he had served in the Russian army during the Crimean War, he came to believe that war was a terrible social ill that must be cured. He wrote the novel *War and Peace* to advocate pacifism. He believed that Christianity was the practical approach to the world's problems.

So the Industrial Revolution had given power to the pens of both romanticists and realists. The newspapers, magazines, and books that were now within the reach of millions of people put into the hands of writers tremendous influence over the thinking of men.

1. What were the themes of the romantic writers?
2. Who were the chief romantic writers and what were their principal works?
3. How did realism differ from romanticism?
4. Name the outstanding writers among the realists and give an example of their writings.

## THE ARTISTS FOLLOW THE ROMANTIC MOOD

The music of the nineteenth century was in the romantic mood also, although many of the composers were too versatile to be strictly bound by one form. The great composers wrote music not only for the church but to express personal emotion and pa-



Courtesy Steinway & Sons

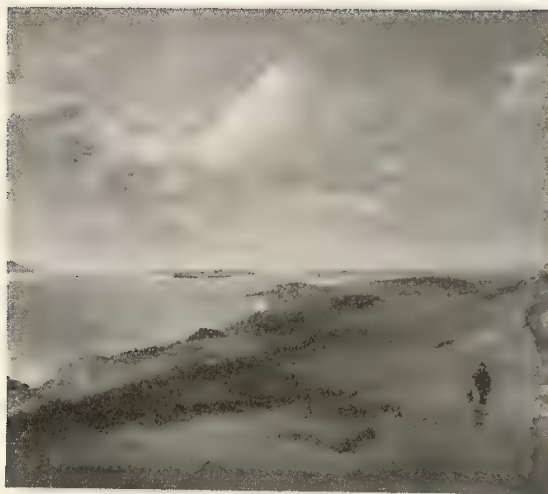
*Beethoven, struggling with ill health, poverty, and lack of a home, never lost his courage and nobility of character.*

triotism. Symphonies, oratorios, and operas became very popular. Medieval tales and folk stories were set to music in operas. A national anthem was written in nearly every country.

**The German Composers** Ludwig van Beethoven (bă'tō vën) (1770-1827) wrote symphonies that departed from the older style set by Mozart (mō tsärt) and Haydn (hā d'n) before him. Thus he set the pattern for the romantic composers of symphonic music. Other German romantic composers followed.

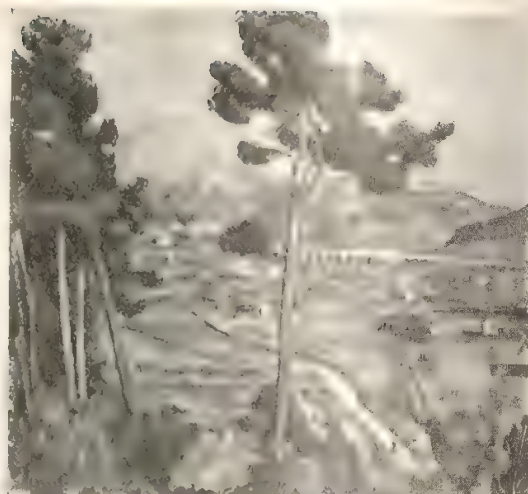
Among them was Richard Wagner (vāg'-nēr) (1813-1883) who used his very great talent to further the German national spirit. He lived through those difficult years when the many German states were being welded into one strong country. Wars were fought, and strong leaders came forth to unite Germany. Wagner was proud of the achievement of German nationalism and





Boston Museum of Fine Arts

*John Constable was one of the first landscape painters to paint directly from nature.*



Metropolitan Museum of Art

*Paul Cézanne, outstanding in modern French art, liked to paint landscapes of his native Provence, France.*



In the Brooklyn Museum Collection

*Mary Cassatt, an American artist who lived in Paris, is noted for her mother-and-child paintings.*

he glorified the German past by writing operas based on German folklore with German heroes, such as *Tannhauser*. Wagner tried to honor his country by developing a distinctive musical form.

### Musicians of Other Countries

The composer Charles Gounod (gōō nō') (1818-1893) produced some of the best French operas. His *Faust* is one of the world's great operas and his *Ave Maria* is

a favorite in sacred music. A fellow Frenchman, Georges Bizet (bē zā') (1838-1875), gained lasting fame when he wrote the opera *Carmen*. Many Italian operas came from this period also. One of the most beloved is Giuseppe Verdi's (jōō sēp ē vār'-dē) *Rigoletto*. Verdi like Wagner (1813-1901) lived during the years when his country achieved its national unity. Much of his music reflects his pride in his nation. However, one of his greatest operas, *Aïda* (āē' dā), honors Egypt. The Poles also gave the world musicians of the highest rank. Frederick Chopin (shō pān') (1810-1849), a gifted composer and pianist, was exiled because of his liberal political views. At that time Polish rebellions were ruthlessly put down by the Russian rulers. With great skill Chopin translated his unhappy mood into music. Ignace Jan Paderewski (pād-ēr ēf'ski) (1860-1941), who lived a half century later, thrilled the world with his compositions and performances as a pianist. Musicians speak a common language in their music. Italian, German, French, and Polish composers of the time all understood what each was attempting to do.





The Frick Collection, New York

*Degas gave up law to become a painter. He enjoyed painting ballet dancers and produced dozens of pictures of them.*



Art Institute of Chicago

*Toulouse-Lautrec found his favorite subjects in music halls and at the circus. His work shows biting satire.*

**Romantic Painting** The romantic mood was expressed in painting, too. There was a flare-up of historical paintings of national heroes like Joan of Arc and Napoleon. The French artist, Ferdinand Delacroix (dě lá krwä'), painted scenes of this type with great skill. Other French artists sympathetically depicted the toiling peasant. It was during this period that landscape painting became popular. Many artists tried to catch the atmosphere of their own native land and put it in permanent form on canvas.



Art Institute of Chicago

*Paul Gauguin was a sailor, then a lawyer, then a painter. He spent the last of his life painting in the South Sea Islands.*

**Impressionism** After the opening of Japan to Western civilization in the 1850's, Japanese painting influenced Western arts. Edouard Manet (mán ě') (1832-1883) was the "father" of a new type of painting called "impressionism." As the name implies, the artists attempted to give the impression or feeling that they had about their subject. The impressionists paid little attention to details. Their paintings had a life-like and sun-lit quality. An American painter, James Whistler (1834-1903), was influenced by Japanese art and brought it to

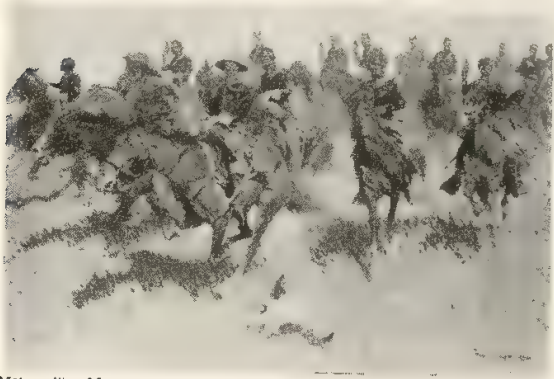
the attention of the Western world. His own work was greatly influenced by it. The Frenchmen Claude Monet (mô ně') (1840-1926) and Pierre Renoir (rē nwár') (1841-1919) did exceptionally fine work of the impressionist type.

**Illustration** The increasing number of magazines and newspapers being published in the latter half of the nineteenth century opened a larger field



Art Institute of Chicago

Is this drawing by Honore Daumier an expression of realism or romanticism? The title is *Professional Sympathy*.



Metropolitan Museum of Art

Frederic Remington's favorite subjects were horses, Indians, cowboys, and soldiers of the Western plains.

for artists. The camera had not yet become an important source of illustrations, but caricaturists and illustrators were widely employed. John Tenniel (tĕn'yĕl) (1820–1914) was one of the best known caricaturist and illustrators.

**Architecture** During the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries there had been a revival of classical architecture in Europe and America. Thomas Jefferson had introduced it into the United States in his home, Monticello, and in the buildings at the

University of Virginia. By the second quarter of the nineteenth century there was a swing away from the classical to the Gothic as a result of the romantic movement. In Great Britain and the United States churches and public buildings of the Gothic style were erected.

1. What forms did much of nineteenth century music take?
2. What countries were outstanding in producing great musicians and great music?
3. Name the composers mentioned in this section and tell from what country each came.
4. Who were the outstanding painters mentioned in this section? For what was each particularly noted?
5. What was "impressionism"?
6. What American buildings are examples of classical architecture? Who introduced that type into the United States?
7. Under the influence of the romantic movement what was the type of architecture used extensively in the United States and Britain?

## MATERIALISM FOLLOWS THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION

All phases of life are intertwined. Inventions, discoveries, music, art, and literature all affect the lives of people. The Industrial Revolution had turned men's minds more and more to material things. Realism in art and literature did, too.

**Effect of Materialism upon Religion** Materialism had an important influence upon religion. Many people, while believing in a Divine Being, came to think that their energy, money, and time should be spent improving the material



well-being of the people and not on religious activities. God, they said, can be worshipped in nature or by living a kind, moral life. Churches are not necessary. Others stated that there is no God and that religion is superstition. The German philosopher Friedrich W. Nietzsche (ně'chě) went still farther to say that man's real and deepest instinct is for power. This instinct, he argued, should be cultivated until there was developed a nation of strong men who would be above good and evil. Other philosophers followed the materialism of Nietzsche, and his teachings especially affected Germany.

**Sociology** The remarkable progress of the Industrial Revolution led many people to believe that man was a genius capable of doing whatever he chose. Even social ills, such as crime, unemployment, and broken homes, could be cured if man put his mind to work at them. Some students of social problems believed that just as there are laws of nature, so there are laws by which people can live together successfully in a community, nation, or world.

*Sigmund Freud, an Austrian physician, was the founder of psychoanalysis.*



Among those students was a Frenchman, Auguste Comte (kônt), who gave this science its name, *sociology*. In England, Herbert Spencer's works on sociology stated that mankind must automatically progress to greater and greater wealth and happiness.

**Psychology** Another new science, called psychology, attempted to explain why people behave as they do. The Christian Church had held that when people did wrong it was because of a spirit of evil which they could conquer if they would. Scientists were now saying that the spirit and body are not separate, and that the body's health and its surroundings lead people to act in certain ways, both bad and good. William James, a professor at Harvard University, became one of the founders of the science of psychology in the United States.

Materialism affected the people of all countries. It was expressed not only in the new sciences of psychology and sociology, but in all areas of life, including literature and art, and there was a growth of atheism. Laws that had sprung from religious practices lost popular support and were abolished in many places. People's minds and time seemed to be occupied with getting and enjoying the material things which the Industrial Revolution had made possible.

The Industrial Revolution in the latter half of the eighteenth century ushered in a new world. The nineteenth and twentieth centuries have developed and improved upon these inventions and discoveries. Now mankind may have a more comfortable and in many respects richer life. But with these blessings have come serious problems and responsibilities as the world continues to try to keep pace spiritually and morally with its scientific growth.



# 9 • Milestones Toward Democracy



Because the Industrial Revolution changed the way of life of so many people of the world, it necessarily affected governments, too, and man's freedom and liberties. Some changes were good, some bad.



The factory system brought with it grave evils, such as long hours of work, bad working conditions, and child labor. These conditions existed for many years, until the working men formed labor unions. Eventually these labor unions were legalized in Great Britain, the United States, and France.



Through their unions, the working people were able to influence governments and eventually gained the right to vote. With their votes, they demanded laws for the protection of workers, better living conditions, and other democratic legislation. Their support went to sympathetic candidates.

During this period, the idea of democracy was broadened to include not only political democracy, that is, the right to vote, but also economic and social democracy, that is, the right to work under wholesome conditions and for fair wages, and other individual rights.

1. What is materialism?
2. How did materialism affect ideas of religion?
3. What effect did the philosopher, Nietzsche, have?
4. What new sciences based on materialism were founded in the late nineteenth century?
5. How did science and invention create serious problems for mankind?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Are you a romanticist or a realist?
2. Why do you think Mary Ann Evans wrote under the pen name of George Eliot?
3. What forces or conditions are the subjects of literature today?
4. Do you think that the art, architecture, and music of today express the machine age in which we are living?

# 9 • Milestones of Living



The inventions that produced the Industrial Revolution brought more radical changes in man's everyday way of life than he had yet experienced throughout his history. Western culture was completely changed.



## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

Machines brought easier methods of travel and communication. People began to move about more freely and to go farther from home—to work and play. Mass production produced many more tools, products, and commodities, and made more of them available to many more people.



## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION



In European countries, in the United States, and in Japan public education made big advances. Interest was aroused also in the physical world, with rapid progress in medical knowledge. The sciences of sociology and psychology were introduced into the curricula of many colleges and universities.

## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS



The romanticists wrote of beauty and emotion, the realists, of life as they actually saw it about them, including the ugly. Painters also were romantic or realistic in expressing their feelings and reactions to life.

The great masters in music, Beethoven, Mozart, Verdi, Chopin, and others, enriched the world with their music during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries. Some musicians were interested in the liberal movements of the day.

5. Why is a wholly materialistic point of view unfortunate?

6. Do you agree that the ills of crime, unemployment, and war could be cured with more human effort? What could you do about them?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

· impressionism · materialism · poet laureate · realism · romanticism ·

#### 2. Can you identify these persons?

· Ludwig van Beethoven · Georges Bizet · Robert Browning · Lord George Gordon Byron · Frederic Chopin · Auguste Comte · Ferdinand Delacroix · Charles Dickens · Alexandre Dumas · George Eliot · Anatole France · Johann Goethe · Charles Gounod · Thomas Hardy · Victor Hugo · Henrik Ibsen · William James · Thomas Jefferson · Edouard Manet · Claude Monet · Friedrich Nietzsche · Ignace Paderewski · Alexander Pushkin · Pierre Renoir · Johann Schiller · Sir Walter Scott · George Bernard Shaw · Herbert Spencer · Alfred Tennyson · Count Leo Tolstoy · Ivan Turgenev · Giuseppe Verdi · Richard Wagner · H. G. Wells · James Whistler · William Wordsworth ·

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Read to the class a poem that you like by one of the romantic poets.

2. Read a novel by a nineteenth-century author and give a review of it for the class.

3. If you have records of any of the shorter works by composers of this period, bring two or three of them to class to play and comment on.

### III. For the Bulletin Board

1. Collect copies of pictures of the Romantic and Impressionist schools of painting.

2. Make a collection of some of the outstanding examples of modern Gothic architecture.

3. Since the beginning of the twentieth century, each year, with a few exceptions, an outstanding writer is granted the Nobel Prize for Literature. Appoint one member of the class to report on the origin of the Nobel prize and the form the prizes take.

4. If you like to write poetry, try your hand at a lyric or a sonnet for the school paper. Before doing so consult your English teacher.

### IV. An Assembly Program

Arrange a school assembly in which you present shorter works for piano and violin composed by some of the artists of this period.

## GOOD READING

BACHMAN, FRANK P., *Great Inventors and Their Inventions*, American Book Company, 1941

*Gives concise but good accounts of important inventions from Watt to the men who made the radio possible.*

BECKER, MAY LAMBERTON, *Introducing Charles Dickens*, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1940

*A simply-written, appealing life of Dickens.*

COTTLER, JOSEPH AND JAFFE, HAYM, *Heroes of Civilization*, Little, Brown & Co., 1931

DE KRUIF, PAUL HENRY, *Microbe Hunters*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1926

*A series of biographies of eminent scientists and doctors.*

DICKENS, CHARLES, *David Copperfield*, Oxford University Press

GARLAND, JOSEPH, M. D., *The Story of Medicine*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1949

*Tells of the advances made in the knowledge of the human body and of medicine from early times.*

GOSS, MADELEINE, *Unfinished Symphony, the Story of Franz Schubert*, Henry Holt & Co., 1941

*The great genius of Schubert is brought out in this charmingly written book.*

GRAY, ELIZABETH JANET, *Young Walter Scott*, The Viking Press, 1935

*A biography young people will like.*

STREET, ALICIA, *Land of the English People*, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1946

TREVELYAN, GEORGE MACAULAY, *English Social History*, Longmans Green & Co., Inc., 1942



*Nations were rivals*

- Great Britain 
- France 
- Netherlands 
- Belgium 



-  Italy
-  Germany
-  Japan
-  United States

*for world power*

"Europe, sire, is involved in a crisis which much exceeds the bounds of political movements. It is a crisis in the social body. I foresaw the event; I have combated it consistently during a ministry of well-nigh forty years. To check the torrent is no longer within the power of man. It can only be guided."

This was part of a letter written by Metternich to Tsar Nicholas I the day after Metternich resigned as chief minister of Austria. He was right; a torrent had burst forth in Europe that was to be felt around the world.

The spirit of *nationalism* which arose in the late Middle Ages in England, France, Portugal, and Spain, now burst forth with increased power. Men gave their first loyalty to their nation, and they were willing to die for it if need be. This spirit led to many wars to attain national unity. Not all the people had to resort to war to become nations; some few were permitted to go their way peacefully. And some of the conflicts did not include all the great powers. But whether by peace or war, the spirit of nationalism expressed itself in large and small countries during that century.

Another moving spirit of the crisis that overthrew Metternich was that of *democracy*. The American and French Revolutions had let loose a mighty surge that was felt in all parts of Europe. The period between 1815 and 1914 saw country after country in Europe develop along democratic lines.

Along with the growth of nationalism and the development of democracy in many countries, there was also a strong urge for *imperialism* (im pēr'-i-āl-izm) in the nineteenth century. The word imperialism comes from the Latin word *imperium*, meaning

power. To us it means to obtain colonies to form an empire. Imperialism is an old activity of mankind, but it was particularly strong in the nineteenth century.

The motives for imperialism have not always been the same. Sometimes nations have wanted their neighbors' wealth, rich lands, gold, ports, or other valuable assets. Since the Industrial Revolution nations have often wanted colonies from which to get raw materials and as markets for their manufactured goods. These are *economic* motives. At times people have wanted colonies to add to their *national prestige*. At other times countries have wanted certain lands for the purpose of *national defense*. In many cases the motives for empire-building have been selfish and the people living in the colonies have frequently been exploited for the benefit of the mother country. In recent years, however, a question often asked is, "Does one nation have the moral right to exploit another or even to rule other people against their will?"

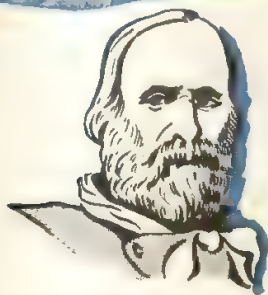
Very few people asked that question in the nineteenth century. Their national pride usually made them consider it their right to gain control of underdeveloped places and to bring Western culture to the peoples of these lands.

IMPERIALISM,

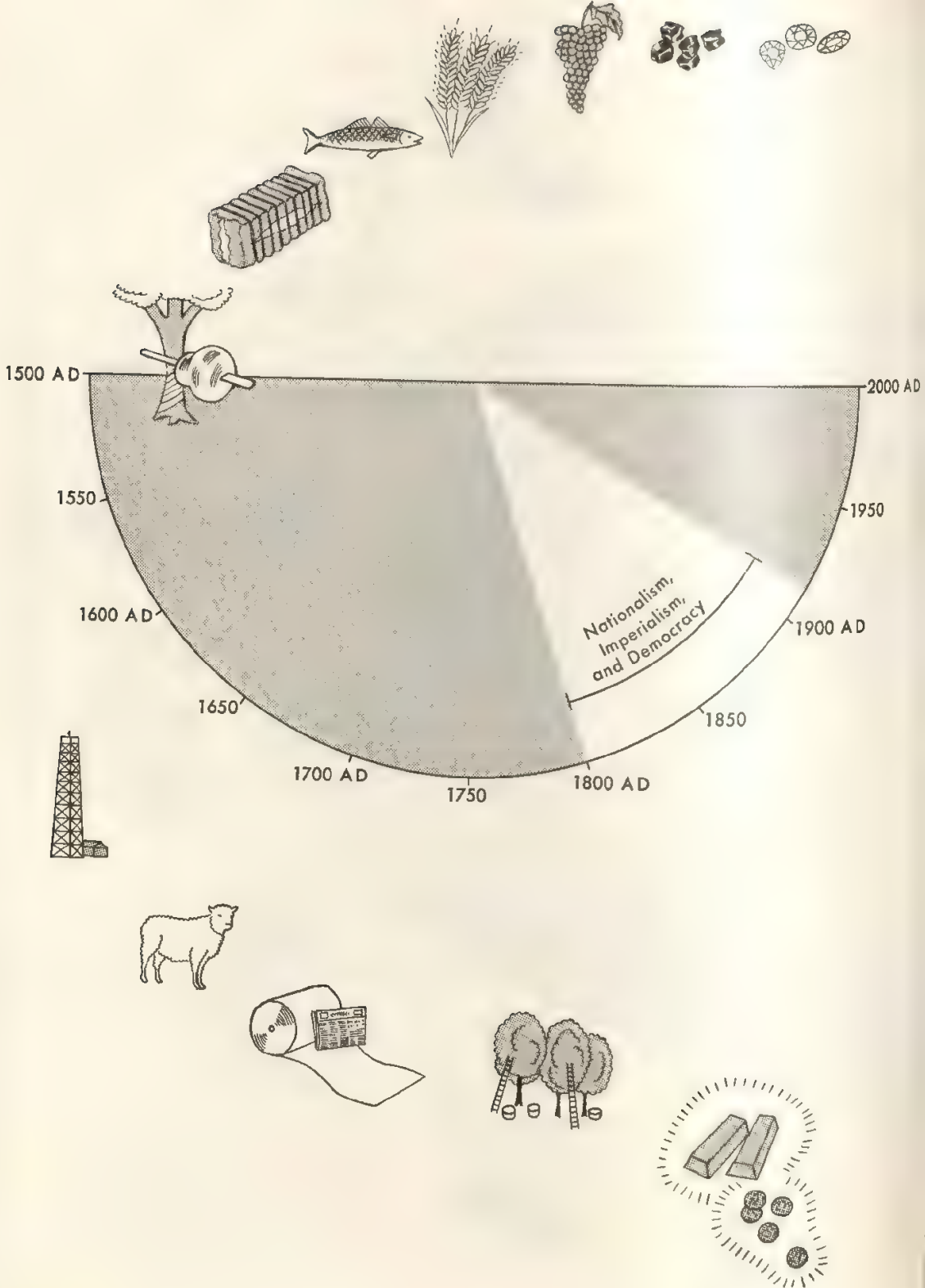
AND

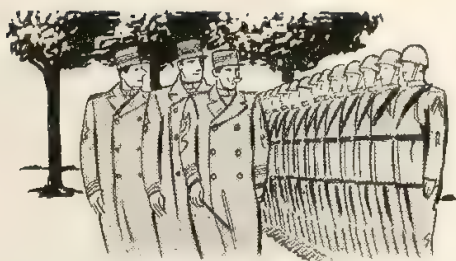
Nationalism,

*Democracy*









## 32 *Germany and Italy Become National States*

**D**uring the period when national states were developing in Europe, both the small German states and the Italian states remained divided, each under its own ruler. The Holy Roman Emperor had very little control over them. The names *Germany* and *Italy* were merely geographic expressions; they did not indicate nations, as they do today.

### PRUSSIA BECOMES THE STRONGEST STATE OF THE GERMANIES

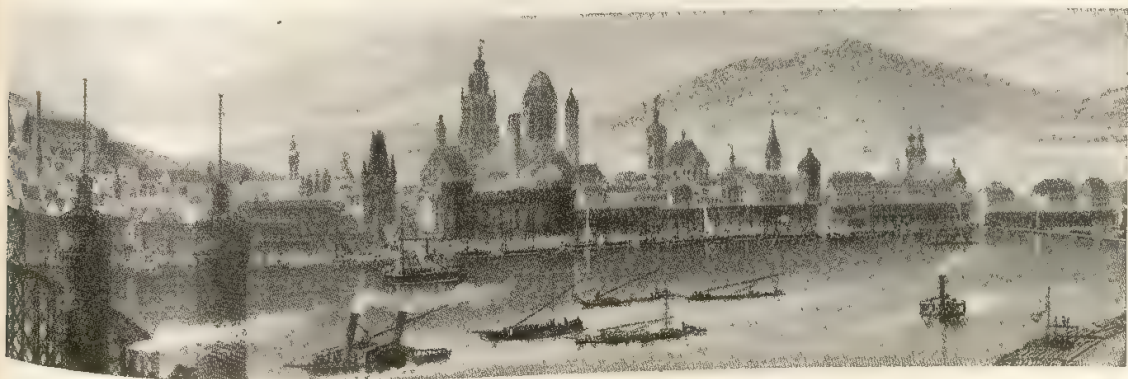
As time passed, Austria and Prussia became the most powerful states among the almost three hundred German states. At the end of the Napoleonic Wars the Germanies

were combined into thirty-eight states. Austria and Prussia rivaled each other for the leadership. Although the Congress of Vienna in 1815 made Austria the head of a new German Confederation, Prussia demonstrated that she had the power to lead the German states.

**Prussia or Austria** There were certain factors that favored Prussia. In the Middle Ages, when trade centered around the Mediterranean Sea, trade routes led overland to Vienna in Austria and the Danube River brought trade to Vienna's door. As trade shifted to the north, Prussia and other northern German states were favorably situated. Prussian rulers saw the advantage

*One of the oldest cities in Germany, Mainz, through its favored position on the Rhine River, early developed into a busy industrial city and railroad center. It was in this city, in 1456, that the Bible was first printed.*

Culver Service



of co-operation among these states. Between 1818 and 1842 Prussia built up a customs union that included all the German states except Austria and Hanover. This union, known as the Zollverein (tsöl'-fēr in), did away with tariffs between the various member states, thus making them an economic unit that fostered trade and made for prosperity. When the Industrial Revolution came to Central Europe, Prussia and some other northern states of Germany were affected much more than Austria, which remained largely agricultural. All of these developments brought prosperity and power to Prussia and placed her in a stronger position than Austria.

### BISMARCK BRINGS UNITY TO THE GERMAN STATES

William I became King of Prussia in 1861. He had long been a soldier and was eager to increase the military might of Prussia. At that time Prussia had a parliament, called a Diet, which was composed of two houses. The members of the upper house were appointed by the king, while

the lower chamber was elected by the nobles and wealthy middle class and had the most power. The constitution recognized the "divine right" of a king to rule.

Despite this character of the Diet, the lower house refused to approve William's request for more money for a larger army. William was bitterly disappointed and was about ready to abdicate. In fact, he wrote his letter of abdication. As a last resort before doing so, he decided to appoint Otto von Bismarck as minister to see whether he could carry out the plan. Bismarck accepted the position and became the central figure in Prussia.

### Bismarck

Bismarck had been a member of the lower chamber of the Diet and had had experience as ambassador to Russia and to France. He was a patriot and was eager to unify the German states. As a member of the Junker (yōōng'kēr), or noble, class, he had no faith in parliaments or democracy. He believed firmly in the divine right of kings and in a strong army for Prussia. Moreover, he had persistence and the will to carry through his plans. When he accepted the task of building up the Prussian army and of guiding the fortunes of Prussia, he did so with the determination to let nothing stand in his path. He disregarded the constitutional rights of the Diet and collected a special tax to support the army. To the Diet Bismarck said, "Not by speeches and resolutions of majorities the mighty problems of the age are solved . . . but by Blood and Iron."

**War with Denmark** Having won his fight with the Diet, Bismarck set about to win his other objectives. He first enlarged the army by conscripting soldiers. New equipment and better discipline brought





the Prussian fighting forces to the place of leadership among the armies of Europe. In 1864 Bismarck fought and won, with the aid of Austria, a war against Denmark to get the provinces of Schleswig-Holstein (shlēs'-wīg · hōl'stīn). Then Austria and Prussia began quarreling over the spoils. In the brief Seven Weeks' War, Prussia defeated Austria. Prussia united northern German states into the North German Confederation, and Austria was excluded from it.

**Franco-Prussian War** When Napoleon III saw a strong Prussian state developing next to France, he was frightened. He was unprepared for war, but Bismarck was ready. Napoleon wanted to do something to decrease the prestige of Prussia, and Bismarck wanted an excuse to fight France. By trickery the German minister made the French believe that their envoy to Berlin had been insulted. France fell into the trap set for her and declared war. The Franco-Prussian War (1870-1871) was decisive.

**The German Empire** Germany defeated France. Napoleon III was captured, but at the close of the war he was released and went to England, where he died in 1873. In 1871 Bismarck had the satisfaction of reading a decree in the famous Hall of Mirrors of Versailles Palace. This decree made the Hohenzollern king of Prussia, William I, the German Emperor. The southern states were thus added to the North German Confederation. Alsace and Lorraine were taken from France and made part of the German Empire. Besides, Germany forced France to pay an indemnity, or compensation, of one billion dollars.

The Franco-Prussian War left a feeling of bitterness all around. The French could not



*This famous cartoon, "Dropping the Pilot," appeared in Punch magazine when the emperor of Germany, William II, forced Bismarck to resign.*

forget the humiliating defeat, the huge indemnity, and, most of all, the loss of Alsace and Lorraine. The Germans lived in fear of revenge on the part of France. On both sides there were hatred and suspicion which was to lead to further trouble for many years.

1. What was the condition of the German states during the Middle Ages?
2. Which two states became the leading German states?
3. What factors led Prussia to surpass Austria among the states of Germany?
4. Of whom was the Prussian Diet composed?
5. What position did the Prussian constitution give the king?
6. Why was Bismarck called to office by William I?

7. What qualities and beliefs did Bismarck have that made him a good choice for William I in 1862?
8. With what three countries did Prussia have wars and why did each occur?
9. What was the result of the Franco-Prussian War so far as Germany was concerned?

## THE GERMAN EMPIRE CONTINUES TO BE MILITARISTIC

For nearly twenty years following its formation, the German Empire was under the control of Bismarck. He held the position of chancellor, as the German prime minister was called. But when William II came to the throne, he and Bismarck disagreed on foreign policy. Besides, William wanted no strong hand in the government except his own. He was eager to rule. In 1890 Kaiser William II dismissed Bismarck and became the ruler of the Empire.

**Government of the German Empire** The government of the Empire was cleverly worked out to give the emperor control. Like the United States, Germany was a federation of states. In the German Empire, however, there were twenty-five states of which most were monarchies. Prussia had dominating control, for she had seventeen representatives in the upper house of the Diet, while the other states had only two, three, or four each. These representatives were selected by the rulers of the states and voted as the rulers dictated. Thus it was easy for the king of Prussia to get whatever he wanted. The lower house, the Reichstag (riks'täk), was elected by universal manhood suffrage, but its powers were very much restricted. All measures had to be approved by the upper house. Under such a government the kaiser

was the ruler of the Empire, and Kaiser William intended to do the ruling.

**Militarism** The militarism that had begun back in the seventeenth century was continued. Germany had won her unity through war, and through that unity had become a great and powerful nation. Therefore the army was respected as in few other countries. The people, too, were disciplined. Every man had to serve two years in the army and then he was placed on the reserves until he was forty-five. Training in the schools was strict, too. Everyone was taught respect for authority. This discipline led to great efficiency in all departments of life. Government was efficient. The industries grew to an extraordinary degree, so that Germany became one of the great industrial nations of the world. Cities were well-planned and beautifully cared for. Most homes were clean and well ordered. The world was attracted by the strides Germany had made. Not until later did most observers see that the Germans had gained their efficiency at a sacrifice. They did not have the personal liberties that Englishmen or Americans had.

It was not only her efficiency that made the world watch Germany. Her desire for colonies, and her merchant marine and naval building program also attracted attention. England, particularly, feared this rivalry on the seas.

**Triple Alliance** Germany, seeing the need for friends, made an alliance with Austria in 1879 to protect her from Russia and France. It provided that if Germany or Austria were attacked by Russia or France the other member of the alliance would come to her aid. In 1882 Italy was admitted, forming the Triple Alliance.

Germany was now militarily strong and she had friends. Such alliances between countries, many of them made without the knowledge of the people of a country, have been one of the causes for wars.

## THE AUSTRO-HUNGARIAN EMPIRE

In the meantime, the Hapsburg rulers of Austria had met two defeats, one at the hands of the Italians, who drove them out of Italy in 1860, and the other in 1866 at the hands of the Prussians. Defeats never make a government popular, and the stern Hapsburg rule was not popular with the numerous nationalities who were Austria's subjects. Among the different people of the empire who had caught the spirit of nationalism and were seeking independence were the Czechs, Slovaks, Slovenes, Croats, Serbs, Hungarians, and Poles. In the apparent weakness of the Hapsburgs these people now saw an opportunity to make demands for self-government.



**The Dual Monarchy** The emperor of Austria, Francis Joseph, decided to listen to the Hungarians only, for they were the most numerous. According to a plan advocated by the Hungarian leader Francis Deak (dē'āk) and agreed to in 1867, the empire consisted of two parts, Austria and

Hungary. There was a common army and a common foreign policy, but each had its own laws, parliament, and courts. Thus the Austrian Empire became the Dual Monarchy of Austria-Hungary. The minorities within the empire were not satisfied with this arrangement. While the laws had to be translated into many languages so that all could know them, everything was done to discourage the continuation of national languages and customs among the minorities. Although the Dual Monarchy lasted for fifty years, the minorities were never happy under the Austro-Hungarian rule.

1. Why was Bismarck dismissed as German Chancellor?
2. Describe the government of the German Empire.
3. What did William II think of his position as emperor?
4. How did Germany maintain a large army?
5. In what ways did German efficiency and discipline affect German life?
6. Why was Great Britain concerned over German power?
7. What was the Triple Alliance?
8. Name the chief nationalities in the Austrian Empire.
9. Explain the Dual Monarchy and tell when it was established.
10. How did the minorities regard the Austro-Hungarian Empire?
11. Why are secret alliances war-breeders?

## THE DISUNITED ITALIAN STATES

Like the German states, Italy in the Middle Ages was disunited. One of the reasons for this was the existence of the Papal States, ruled by the Church, which occupied central Italy and cut northern Italy off from its southern part. Another





*The history of the Italian peninsula has been one of invasions. It became a French dependency under Napoleon. Later, the Congress of Vienna gave most of the territory to Austria and the pope.*

reason for disunity was the claim of the Holy Roman Emperor on northern Italy. The Emperor made frequent trips from Germany over the Alps to see that the northern Italian states remained his subjects. Despite his efforts, the northern cities revolted and became independent.

But the city-states could not maintain their independence in the face of the strong powers developing around them. By the treaty of Utrecht, signed in 1713 at the close of one of the territorial wars in Europe, Austria had obtained Naples and Milan. After that, Austria as well as the papacy stood in the path of Italian unification. After the Napoleonic Wars, Austria emerged as a strong power. She now had control of the Tyrol, Venetia, and Lombardy.

There was a third block in the path of Italian unification: the leaders could not agree upon the type of government they wanted. Some wanted a monarchy under one of the liberal Italian state kings. Some wanted unification under the pope. A third group wanted a republic.

**Mazzini and Young Italy** The most noted leader of the early Italian revolts was the brilliant idealist and poet, Giuseppe Mazzini (jōō zēp' pā māt sē'nē). Mazzini was frail in body but he had a burning desire to free his fellow Italians from oppressive rulers. In 1831 he founded a society called "Young Italy." Its members pledged themselves to go among the Italian people teaching and inspiring them with a desire for independence. Mazzini stood for a free, united Italy with a republican form of government. For his zeal he was expelled from Italy, but he went to London and continued to write articles on Italian independence.

## THE DREAM OF UNIFICATION COMES TRUE

**Cavour** It fell to another Italian patriot to accomplish what Mazzini had worked to achieve. That man was Count Camillo di Cavour (kā mēl' lō dē kā vōōr'). Cavour was a wealthy nobleman, but he held democratic ideas and was imprisoned for his liberalism at one time in his career. Although revolutions in Italy in 1848 generally failed, one state, the Kingdom of Sardinia (sār dīn' iā), granted its people a constitution. Shortly thereafter (1852) the young king of Sardinia, Victor Emmanuel II, asked Cavour to act as his chief minister. Cavour was a sincere patriot, liberal in his outlook, and very able.

Cavour believed that the unification of Italy should come under the leadership of Sardinia and its liberal king, Victor Emmanuel. When the king made him his chief minister, Cavour got his chance. He improved the economic conditions of the country by building railroads and encouraging agriculture and business. Under his

guidance Sardinia became prosperous and the people continued to enjoy a liberal government. This won over many Italians who had formerly followed Mazzini but who now looked to Sardinia and Cavour for leadership.

Cavour called upon Napoleon III of France to help him dislodge the Austrians from Italy. He promised that Sardinia would reward France with territory near France. This was the opportunity Napoleon needed to increase his popularity at home. The French liberals were eager to help to unite Italy, and all Frenchmen would be proud of new lands gained. Napoleon gladly sent an army to aid Cavour and together they defeated Austria. Austria was driven out of Lombardy, and Lombardy was added to the Kingdom of Sardinia. Napoleon III annexed the city of Nice and the province of Savoy, which Cavour had promised him as the price for his aid, and left Sardinia to finish the task of unification. Soon all the states north of the Papal States, except Venetia, joined the Kingdom of Sardinia one by one.

*Garibaldi spent most of his life fighting for the cause of freedom. As a young man, he was condemned to death for his part in a rebellion in Genoa. He fled to France, then to South America to fight with Uruguay against Argentina. For a time he lived in the United States. He returned to Italy to win freedom for his people and unite their country.*

Brown Brothers

## Garibaldi

The Two Sicilies south of the Papal States were still outside the union. Here Giuseppe Garibaldi (jōō-zěp'pā gǎ rě bōl dī) stepped into the story. Garibaldi was a famous patriot. Leading a band of picturesque "Red Shirts," he won almost miraculous victories over Bourbon armies and in a few weeks controlled the Two Sicilies. Then he marched to Naples, where resistance crumbled and he was triumphantly received. Garibaldi was such a hero that he might have made himself a dictator. Instead, a plebiscite was held, and the territory Garibaldi had taken voted to join the rest of the union under the leadership of Sardinia. The Kingdom of Italy was proclaimed in 1861, with Victor Emmanuel II as king. The King offered Garibaldi titles and riches, but he declined them. Instead, he retired to his farm.

## Venetia and Rome

There were two remaining problems facing the new kingdom, but events in Europe solved them. The Seven Weeks' War in 1866 between Austria and Prussia gave Venetia to Italy as







Ewing Galloway

*Italy's mountains and rocky terrain make for great beauty. In this section of the Italian Alps, note the steeply terraced farming land behind the castle. One of Italy's acute problems has always been the lack of productive land.*

her part of the spoils for co-operating with Prussia. The second problem was the Papal States. Cavour had always contended that Rome must be the capital of a united Italy. The papacy had already lost part of its territory to Italy in 1861, but Napoleon III had always objected to depriving the pope of his temporal powers. The defeat of France by Prussia in 1870 removed Napoleon III from the scene. Now the remaining lands under the domination of the pope could be united with Italy, since the French soldiers were no longer guarding them. In 1870 Italian troops occupied the city of Rome, and it was made the capital of Italy. With the annexation of Rome, the unification of Italy was completed.

1. Why was Italy not united until the nineteenth century?
2. Different leaders had different ideas as to how Italy should be united. What were they?
3. When was Italy made a united country?

4. What three men were chiefly responsible for the unification of Italy and what part did each play?
5. Who were the "Red Shirts"?
6. When was Rome added to Italy?

#### UNITED ITALY TAKES ITS PLACE IN WORLD AFFAIRS

The unification of Italy gave her a place among the powers of Europe. She modeled her government after that of Great Britain. Authority was in the hands of the parliament, to whom the cabinet was responsible. The power of the king was restricted. In 1912 the right to vote was given to all adult males. The organization of the government was along democratic lines, but citizens were disappointed in their government.

Italy was a poor country with few resources and a soil that was worn out from centuries of cultivation. Despite this, Italy built roads, railroads, and schools, and improved its harbors. In keeping with the



policy of other powers on the continent, she built up a large standing army and increased her navy. These cost so much that the country was almost in bankruptcy at times. But northern Italy developed economically, and manufacturing became important in Milan and Turin. In the south there was often not enough work to support a large population, and hundreds of thousands of Italians emigrated to the United States or to South America in the late 90's and early 1900's.

**Foreign Affairs** As a new government, Italy felt the need of friends, and like the other powers of Europe she wanted colonies. In imperialism she looked for a return to the glory of ancient Rome as well as for a solution to the problems of surplus population and scarce raw materials. In 1881, when France took Tunis in North Africa, Italy was disappointed because she had hoped to take that territory herself. She realized more than ever the need of friendly powers to back her if she expected to get colonies. Therefore, in 1882 she joined the Triple Alliance with Germany and Austria. In 1896 her attempts to get territory from Abyssinia, in Africa, ended in a serious defeat for the Italian armies. She was more successful in a war with Turkey in 1911. As a result of that war Italy acquired Tripoli and Cyrenaica (sīr ě nā'i ká). By 1914 Italy was one of the important powers of Europe.

1. What type of government did united Italy establish?
2. Why did Italy's government not work well?
3. What were the major economic problems Italy faced at home?
4. What was one reason Italy joined the Triple Alliance?
5. What colonial territory did Italy acquire?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. How did the history of Germany lead her to become a militaristic nation?
2. It has been said that Napoleon I laid the foundation of the German Empire. In what sense is that true?
3. Why did Bismarck have no faith in parliaments and democracy?
4. In what way was the Zollverein a step toward the unification of Germany?
5. In your opinion was the German discipline a good or bad thing?
6. Why was the Austro-Hungarian Empire difficult to rule?
7. Before the unification of Italy someone called it a "geographical expression." Why?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• chancellor • Diet • Dual Monarchy • "geographical expression" • German Confederation • Junker class • kaiser • North German Confederation • "Red Shirts" • Reichstag • "Roman question" • Triple Alliance • "Young Italy" • Zollverein •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• 1713 • 1860 • 1861 • 1864 • 1866 • 1867 • 1870 • 1870-1871 • 1871 • 1879 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

• Abyssinia • Alsace • Austria-Hungary • Cyrenaica • Denmark • German Empire • Lombardy • Lorraine • Milan • Naples • Nice • Papal States • Prussia • Rome • Russia • Sardinia • Savoy • Schleswig-Holstein • Spain • Tripoli • Tunis • Turin • Two Sicilies • Tyrol •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

• Otto von Bismarck • Camillo Cavour • Francis Deak • Francis Joseph • Garibaldi • Mazzini • Napoleon III • Victor Emmanuel II • William I • William II •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Ask one student to report on the number of persons of Italian birth now living in the United States; another on those of German birth.

2. Make an outline of the part of this chapter that deals with Italy, using the following items as major topics. Bring your outlines to class to compare them.

### i. Preliminary work

a. Mazzini

b. Cavour in Sardinia

### ii. Unification

a. Northern Italy

b. Two Sicilies

c. Venetia

d. Papal States

### iii. United Italy

a. Government

b. Imperialism

3. Give an oral report on one of the following topics:

• The Junker class in Prussia • Discipline in the Prussian army • The Ems Dispatch (This was the dispatch that caused the war between France and Prussia) • The nationalities of Austria-Hungary •

4. Prepare a written report on one of the following men. The teacher should select the reports to be read to the class.

• Bismarck • William II • Mazzini •

5. Read the important parts of Bismarck's "blood and iron" speech for discussion.

## III. A Cartoon

If you like to draw, draw a cartoon on one or more of the following episodes:

a. William I handing over the power in government to Bismarck.

b. Austria and Prussia quarreling over the spoils of the war with Denmark.

c. The proclamation of the German Empire

d. The formation of the Dual Monarchy in Austria-Hungary

## IV. Class Committee Work

1. Assign a committee to hold an informal discussion on one or more of the following topics:

a. German discipline stifled political progress of the individual.

b. Napoleon III was a weak ruler.

c. The numerous nationalities of Austria-Hungary were a drawback to the Empire.

d. Of the three, Mazzini, Cavour, and Garibaldi, Cavour had the greatest influence upon Italy.

e. Italy, because of her large population and poor soil, was justified in trying to get colonies.

f. Cavour was justified in agitating for the city of Rome to be the capital of Italy.

2. Millions of Italians emigrated in the early twentieth century. Ask a small committee to report to the class on the number and the places to which they went, one member to report on each country or locality.

## V. At the Blackboard

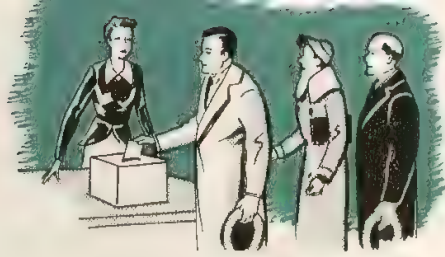
With one member of the class at the blackboard, discuss and list how the two policies that kept Europe in trouble for so many centuries affected Italy's unification: mercantilism, balance of power.

## VI. Newspaper Headlines

Write a series of headlines that would have been appropriate for a newspaper at various periods during the unification of Italy and of Germany.

## VII. Picture Study

One of the most famous cartoons of modern times was that shown on page 393. Note the title and study the drawing. Discuss its meaning in class. The cartoonist was also a famous illustrator, noted for his illustrations of *Alice in Wonderland* and *Through the Looking Glass*.



## Democracy Grows in Parts of the World

By the time of the American Revolution the pattern of British government had been well established. The prime minister, who was the chief official of the government, was the recognized leader of his political party. He was also the head of the cabinet, whose numbers varied according to the number needed at any particular time. Most cabinet members were heads of departments of government, like the navy or treasury. Policies of the government

were made by the cabinet, all of whom backed any bill that was introduced by a member into the House of Commons. In other words, the cabinet worked as a unit, and if any member felt that he did not want to work for the policy of the cabinet, he resigned.

If a prime minister and his cabinet were unable to get their measures accepted by the members of Parliament, the cabinet and prime minister resigned. The king then

*The English Parliament Buildings are a fine example of the Gothic type of architecture. They are located on the Thames River, in London. Both the House of Lords and the House of Commons meet here.*

T.W.A.





called for another person to be prime minister, or he might call for a new election of Parliament. Then the king chose the leader of the majority party to "form a government," that is, to select a cabinet to carry on the functions of government. This system of government worked well in Britain.

## REFORM IN GREAT BRITAIN

Despite this system, England had long needed reform. Fear of reform measures becoming too radical, however, had prevented the English Parliament from giving the right to vote to more people. Later, the wars against Napoleon occupied England's time and energies. Consequently the Tory party, which was conservative and opposed to reform, remained in power after the Napoleonic Wars.

In 1828 the Duke of Wellington, who had been a great general in the Napoleonic Wars, became the Tory prime minister. Two years later he made a speech in the House of Commons saying that the English system of government was the best that "could be devised by the wit of man" and had the "entire confidence of the country." In other words, England needed no reform.

The uproar that followed Wellington's speech in Parliament showed how far he was from sensing the real situation in the country. As he left the House of Commons, he asked a friend if he had said anything that should have created such a stir. "You have announced the fall of your ministry," was the answer. That was correct. A new cabinet was formed under the Whig party.

**Reform Bill of 1832** The Whigs introduced a reform bill, but the aristocratic House of Lords twice refused to pass it. It seemed for a time that civil war might

break out in England. To prevent this, the king reluctantly agreed that if the House of Lords did not pass the bill, he would create enough new peers (members of the House of Lords) who favored it to get the majority needed to pass the bill in the House of Lords. The threat was enough, and the Reform Bill of 1832 became a law.

The Reform Bill of 1832 took representation away from towns that had declined in population ("rotten boroughs") and gave it to the new, growing industrial towns. This redistribution of the seats of Parliament was the most important part of the Reform Bill, but the bill also gave the right to vote to most of the new middle class of factory owners and businessmen.

**Other Reforms** The Reform Bill was not the only one passed at this time to make the country more democratic. In 1829, under the Tories, the Catholic Emancipation Act, permitting Roman Catholics to be members of Parliament, had become a law. Negro slavery was abolished throughout the empire in 1833. Parliament passed factory laws to protect children, and it enacted better laws for relief of the poor. Finally, in order to aid the workers and manufacturers who needed cheap food and raw materials, the tariffs were taken off many imports, especially grain.

**Queen Victoria** In 1837 Queen Victoria came to the throne. The last two kings had been men of low moral standards, and the English people had had little affection for them. Victoria, on the other hand, while neither brilliant nor beautiful, was a good homemaker and lived happily with her husband and large family of children in a way that the English believed a good family should live. She inspired Englishmen

everywhere with a love of her and of the royal family. The "Age of Victoria" (1837-1901) was a great age in England. During her reign, trade and manufacturing grew steadily. So did social reforms. Restrictions were placed on the hours of labor for women and children. The use of safety devices in mines was made compulsory, and labor unions were legalized.

**Gladstone and Disraeli** In the period between 1865 and 1881 two prime ministers dominated England's political scene. One was William E. Gladstone, who was of the country gentry. He was of the Liberal party, formerly the Whig, and had unusual powers of oratory. The other leader was Benjamin Disraeli who led the Conservative party, formerly the Tory.

**Reform Bill of 1867** The Reform Bill of 1832 had not satisfied many Englishmen. The wage earners wanted the right to vote. John Bright, a popular leader and orator, urged the people to act, saying that if Parliament Street were filled with workers demanding reform they would get it. But it was the Conservative, Disraeli, who introduced the Reform Bill of 1867 into Parliament. It lowered the voting requirements so that townsmen paying as little as ten pounds rent a year might vote, and it allowed rural tenants to vote if they paid twelve pounds rent. This measure almost doubled the number of voters in Britain.

**Reform Bills of the Gladstone Ministry** During the ministry of William Gladstone other reforms were made. In 1872 England adopted the secret, or Australian, ballot, and in 1884 a Reform Bill gave the right to vote to practically all agricultural workers and to all householders



Brown Brothers

*Mrs. Emmeline Pankhurst and her fellow suffragettes did much to bring the franchise to English women.*

in the cities. The next year a law divided England into equal electoral districts, each having one representative in Parliament. This did away entirely with the rotten boroughs and gave equal representation to the new industrial cities.

**Universal Suffrage** In 1918 the long series of laws giving more and more men the right to vote was supplemented by an even more liberal act. The new law gave all men over twenty-one years of age who had permanent residences and all women over thirty the right to vote. Ten years later women were given the same voting privileges as men. Thus after a long and hard struggle, but without violence, England accepted universal suffrage.

**Labor Party** The Labor Party developed gradually, until in 1906 it elected twenty-nine members to the House of Commons. Its purpose was to sponsor labor legislation and other reform measures.

**Lloyd George** One prominent member of the Liberal party was David Lloyd George, who in 1906 became Chancellor of the Exchequer, in charge of finances in the British cabinet. Lloyd George was a fiery Welshman, proud of the fact that he came from the common people. He was a skillful orator, and appealed to the working men and the liberals.

Seeing the need for social legislation, Lloyd George proposed insurance for workers against the expenses of illness, unemployment, and old age. Such insurance costs money, and Lloyd George proposed to tax the great land owners to get it. A large part of the land of England was owned by a few people and much of it was not under cultivation. Instead, it was used as private parks and hunting grounds. The new tax bill introduced by Lloyd George was designed to tax such lands heavily. The bill was passed by the House of Commons, but the House of Lords refused to approve it. Parliament was dissolved and new elections were held. This time, very reluctantly, the House of Lords passed the bill. In order to pay the high taxes many landholders had to sell part of their land. Thus the Budget Bill, as it was called, did three things. It gave

*David Lloyd George was studying law at 16, while working in the coal mines. At 21 he interested himself in reform.*



the workers social insurance; it provided a means of getting the money to finance such insurance; and it caused the breakup of some of the large estates, distributing the land more equally.

It was very distasteful to the Liberals and the Laborites, and especially to Lloyd George, that the Budget Bill had been held up so long by an aristocratic House of Lords. Therefore, he submitted the Parliament Bill, which was designed to prevent such a situation from arising again. This bill contained two provisions to reduce the power of the House of Lords. First, all money bills passed by the House of Commons were to become law one month after being presented to the House of Lords, even if that house rejected the bills. Second, other bills passed by the House of Commons could not be vetoed by the House of Lords for more than two years. After that time had elapsed, their veto power over a bill ceased. A third provision was also important. General elections to the House of Commons must be held at least every five years. The Parliament Act of 1911 became a law. The power of the lords was broken, though they still had influence in British government.

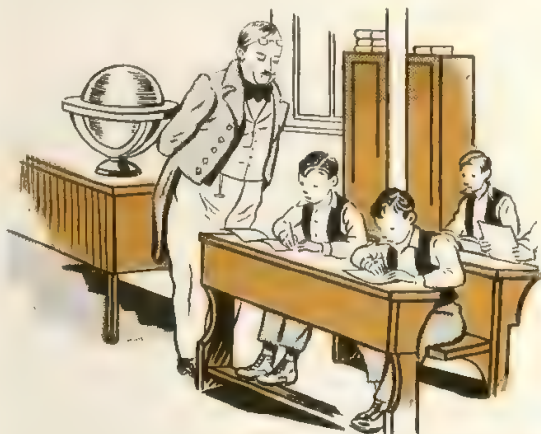
The nineteenth century had been a great century in British history. The country had developed economically and politically. At the beginning of the century a few wealthy men had controlled the government. By 1914 England had built up great industries and trade, and she had progressed to a really democratic system.

1. Why did the Duke of Wellington lose his position as prime minister?
2. For what did the Reform Bill of 1832 provide? How was it passed?
3. Explain how the parliamentary system works in Britain.



4. What changes were made in England's political parties in the 1830's?
5. What laws were passed in the first half of the nineteenth century to improve economic and social conditions?
6. Why did Britain adopt a system of free trade?
7. Who were William Gladstone and Benjamin Disraeli?
8. For what did the Reform Bill of 1867 provide? of 1884? of 1918?
9. What important third party arose in the early twentieth century?
10. What was the Parliamentary Law of 1911?

was no king. Instead, a president, elected for seven years, was the executive. Actually, he had no more power than the English king. The real executive power was held by a cabinet, or ministry, of which the prime



*About 1880, through the efforts of Jules Ferry, education was made compulsory for children in France.*

### THE THIRD FRENCH REPUBLIC GAINS POPULARITY

The Franco-Prussian War (1870) had been a great blow to France. She was regarded as the greatest country on the continent of Europe before the war began, but the German armies had left her crushed. She had lost Alsace and Lorraine, two rich provinces. The war had cost her billions of dollars and widespread damage to the country. Half a million Frenchmen were war casualties. The Germans believed that France would not be a power to reckon with for generations to come. But they were mistaken; hard work and courage soon brought France back as one of the great powers of the world.

**Government** Before recovery took place, however, France went through an ordeal of civil strife and a period of indecision as to what type of government to set up. It was finally decided to continue the Third Republic that had come into being during the war. A constitution was written in 1875. The government was modeled after the British government except that there

minister was the head. The legislature, or parliament, consisted of a Senate (now called Council of the Republic) and a Chamber of Deputies. The Chamber of Deputies made the laws and passed money bills, and the prime minister answered to it.

**Factions in France** Within France there were many factions at odds with one another. One serious division in France was between the Roman Catholic Church and the anti-clericals who opposed the influence of the Church in government. The Church in France showed little loyalty to the Republic because of the harsh measures the Republic had taken against it. Early in the twentieth century the French Parliament passed a series of acts separating the Church and State and reducing the power of the Church in education. Members of religious orders, monks and nuns, were not permitted to teach in the public schools.

Another serious conflict was between the Monarchists and the Republicans. The Monarchists looked for excuses to get rid of the Republic and restore a king to power. They accused the Republic of corruption and inefficiency.

**Economic Improvements** Despite the disagreements that at times seemed great enough to destroy the Republic, the government continued to gain in popularity. One reason for this was the improved economic conditions which aided the farmers, labor, and industry.

**Education** The leaders of the Republic realized that if the people were to be intelligent voters they must be able to read and write. In the 1880's school attendance was made compulsory from the age of six to thirteen.

Democracy came to France the hard way. While England ever since the Magna Carta in 1215 had been gradually developing into a democracy, France under the Bourbons had become more and more absolute in government. It took a great and bloody upheaval, the French Revolution, to overthrow the old regime. After that, France changed from a republic to a monarchy and back again several times. There still remained in France many persons who felt that a monarchy would be the best government for their country. But as more and more localities were permitted to manage their own affairs, and as people gradually learned the art of self-government, the French Republic continued to improve.

1. What were the results to France of the Franco-Prussian War?
2. When was the Third French Republic established?

3. Describe the French government under the Third Republic.
4. Why was the French government less stable than the British?
5. What actions were taken by the Third Republic against the Roman Catholic Church?
6. What economic reforms were made for the benefit of France? Give evidence of their effectiveness.
7. How was education improved in France?
8. Why did the French government continue to grow in popularity with the farmers, labor, and industry?

## DEMOCRACY AND UNITY GROW IN THE UNITED STATES

While Great Britain and France were developing along democratic lines, the United States was also becoming more democratic. The government of the United States under the Constitution of 1787 was not completely democratic. Differences of opinion as to how the Constitution should be carried out led to the formation of two political parties.

**Federalist Party** The Federalist party that controlled the government until 1801 followed the ideas of its founder, Alexander Hamilton. He believed that government should be by the "rich, able, and well-born." Laws were passed favoring the merchants and business men. Tariffs were placed on imports to encourage home manufacturing. A tax on whiskey hit the Western farmers hard and a National Bank benefited the well-to-do. On the other hand, the Federalists established a sound financial basis for the country and steered it successfully into peaceful channels between the warring French and British. They served our country well.

## **Democratic Republican Party**

The opponents of the Federalists were the Democratic Republicans led by Thomas Jefferson. In the election of 1800 the Federalists lost control and Thomas Jefferson was elected President, along with a majority of Democratic Republicans in Congress. They were supported by the majority of the people of the rapidly-growing West. It was out of the West that most of the liberal measures were to come. For example, under the Constitution the right to vote was controlled entirely by the states. In a few states there were certain religious qualifications for voting and all states had certain property qualifications. Consequently, only about one adult male out of six had the right to vote. By 1828 this was changed. Many new Western states had come into the Union. Their constitutions provided for universal manhood suffrage. The Eastern states had found that the West was attracting too many of their workers. One by one, they, too, granted manhood suffrage.

**Andrew Jackson** The first President who had been born into a humble frontier family was elected in 1828. Andrew Jackson stood for the rights of the common man and the interests of the frontier as opposed to the moneyed interests of the eastern section of the country.

**Early Social Reforms** During the period between 1830 and 1860 a movement for social reform began to stir, especially in the northern part of the country. William Lloyd Garrison, through his newspaper *The Liberator*, fought for freedom of the slaves in the United States. Antislavery societies were organized throughout the North. Many Southerners objected to slavery also. Temperance societies played

up the evils of intemperance. It was during this period that women first took an active part in social reform. Asylums for the insane were established and more humane treatment of prisoners was started, largely through the efforts of women. Imprisonment for debt was abolished.

The need for public education was recognized by the founders of the United States. Thomas Jefferson worked all his life for a system of public education in his native state of Virginia. Outside New England, however, there were few schools in 1800 that were free. Abraham Lincoln had no more than a year's formal schooling and his successor to the presidency, Andrew Johnson, could not read and write until his wife taught him.

In the 1830's came a revival of interest in education, due in large part to the work of men like Horace Mann and Henry Barnard. Educational systems were set up in every state and many of them established schools for training teachers and named state superintendents to plan and supervise educational activities. Some states also established high schools, and a few built colleges for further study. The great development in public high schools and colleges in America did not come, however, until later.

**War between the States** From the earliest days under the Constitution there were differences of opinion as to what powers the states and federal government should have. With few exceptions, the Constitution did not state specifically the powers of each. There were several controversies between the states and the federal government over this question. At first, the Federalist party had stood for a strong central government, while the Democratic Republicans stood for more power



in the hands of the states, that is, for states' rights. Later, when the Democratic Republicans won control of the national government, they emphasized the power of the national government, while the Federalists defended state rights. Then, about 1800, the United States Supreme Court, under the



*Physical therapy for the handicapped is one of the newest and most successful methods of treatment. It also offers a rewarding vocation for young women.*

guidance of John Marshall, took the lead in championing a strong national government. The country gradually divided along geographic lines on this question. The states north of the Ohio River and a line extending roughly west of its mouth advocated a strong central government. Those states south of that line advocated strong state governments.

Another question divided the North and the South. Most of the slaves lived in the South, and the North developed a strong antislavery sentiment. The question of whether the national or state governments could decide the matter of slavery brought the question of states' rights into the open again. Finally a bitter war broke out over the question. The War between the States (1860—1865) was one of the bloodiest and most tragic wars in American history. At

its close, a Northern victory under the presidency of Abraham Lincoln insured an end of slavery in the United States and led to unity in the nation.

**Later Social Reforms** The industrialization of the United States went on very rapidly following the war. Vast fortunes were made in coal, iron, lumber, oil, and other natural resources of the country. Since the Constitution had been written for a nation of about four million farmers, it did not deal with the problems that would arise with a much larger and industrialized nation. Selfish men wasted the nation's resources and took advantage of labor. It was only after a hard struggle that the state and federal governments passed laws to conserve the natural resources and to regulate manufacturing and railroads. Labor organizations secured laws to aid labor.

Presidents Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson stood out as advocates of liberal legislation to control business and to safeguard labor and the public from exploitation. Laws were passed to prevent big business from forcing little businesses to close their doors. Rates of railroads were regulated and many of the evil practices of the railroads were made illegal. Aroused by the waste of our natural resources, Theodore Roosevelt started a long-range conservation program. Laws favoring labor and the farmer were passed in the Wilson administration. Congress also passed an act improving banking in the United States. Theodore Roosevelt's "square deal" for all people and Woodrow Wilson's "New Freedom" advanced the cause of social and economic democracy in the United States.

**Suffrage** In the United States the qualifications for voting had usually

been decided by state legislatures. However, following the War between the States an amendment was passed to the federal Constitution guaranteeing the ballot to the ex-slaves. In 1920 another amendment gave the ballot to women.

**Immigration** The immigration policy of the United States was very liberal in the nineteenth century, partly because of the need for labor to open the West and man the Eastern factories. Any one who wished to do so could come to America and become a citizen. America became the symbol of protection and freedom for the downtrodden of the world.

As the United States became more thickly populated and as labor unions began objecting to cheap foreign labor in the United States, laws were passed regulating immigration. The first law excluded Chinese. Other laws shut the doors to undesirables, the sick, insane, and criminals. Later, a yearly quota was set up for each nation.

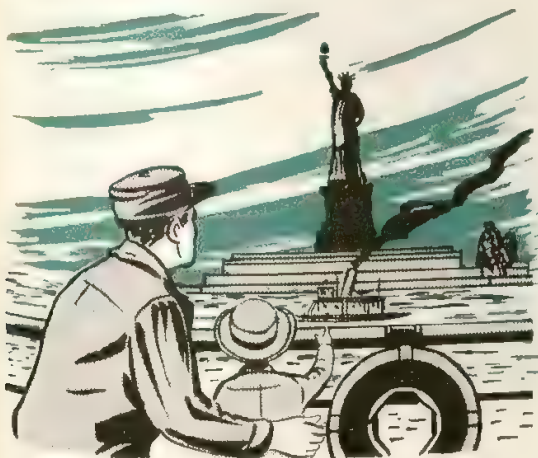
**Democracy** During the nineteenth century democracy developed in Great Britain, France, and the United States. Other nations of the world watched

the experiment eagerly. It seemed that a cure had been found for the political ills of the world. Not that any one of these governments was ideal. Far from it. But the theory that human beings can collectively decide what their government should be seemed established in three of the most advanced countries of the world.

1. What were the first two political parties in the United States? Who led each of them and how did their ideas differ?
2. Why was universal manhood suffrage adopted in the United States?
3. For what policies did Jackson stand?
4. What social reforms were made in the United States between 1830 and 1860?
5. What important differences between the North and the South brought on the War between the States? What were the results?
6. Why was the United States late in passing social legislation? What laws were passed in the administrations of Theodore Roosevelt and Woodrow Wilson?
7. What amendments were passed to the Constitution giving more people the right to vote?
8. How and why did the immigration policy of the United States change?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why did the English House of Lords object to having more peers created?
2. Why is the gradual growth of democracy more satisfactory than a democracy set up suddenly in a country without experience in self-government?
3. Why do conservative governments sometimes sponsor liberal legislation of which they do not entirely approve?
4. What "third parties" are there in your state today?



5. Why did the framers of the Constitution the United States write into it a provision for the redistribution of seats in the House of Representatives every ten years?

6. Of what value was the House of Lords in Great Britain after the Parliament Act of 1911?

7. What social reforms are still needed in the United States?

8. Explain what the American poet Archibald MacLeish meant when he wrote that "democracy is something that a nation must always be doing."

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• bloc • Budget Bill • cabinet • Catholic Emancipation Act • Chancellor of the Exchequer • Conservative party • Democratic Republican party • Federalists • forming a government • Labor party • Liberal party • merchant marine • ministry • peers • Parliament Bill • prime minister • Reform Bill of 1832 • Reform Bill of 1867 • Reform Bill of 1884 • rotten boroughs • tariff • "third parties" • Tory party •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1832 • 1837-1901 • 1860-1865 • 1867 • 1884 • 1911 • 1920 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Alsace • Lorraine • New England • New York • The North (of the United States) • Ohio River • The South (of the United States) • Virginia •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Henry Barnard • John Bright • Benjamin Disraeli • David Lloyd George • William E. Gladstone • Alexander Hamilton • Andrew Jackson • Thomas Jefferson • Andrew Johnson • Woodrow Wilson • Abraham Lincoln • Horace Mann • John Mar-  
Duke of Wellington •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. One member in the House of Commons represents approximately 70,000 people. Let one pupil report to the class the number of persons that one member of the House of Representatives represents.

2. Appoint another to report on the requirements for voting in your state.

3. A third pupil may report on the third parties in the United States, telling for what each stands.

4. There are many private agencies that are working for social betterment and better international understanding. Some of them are listed below. Select one to report on.

• Young Men's Christian Association •  
• Young Women's Christian Association •  
• Boy Scouts • Girl Scouts • Hull House •  
• English Speaking Union • Russell Sage Foundation • A. W. Mellon Educational and Charitable Trust • Girl Guides • Red Cross • Rockefeller Foundation • Carnegie Corporation of New York • Ford Foundation • World Peace Foundation •

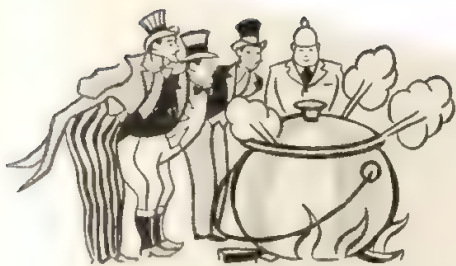
### III. An Editorial

Write an editorial that might have appeared in a newspaper discussing one of the following events:

- The Duke of Wellington resigns as prime minister.
- The Reform Bill of 1832 is passed.
- Suffrage is granted to women in the United States (or Great Britain)
- Dreyfus is declared not guilty.
- Jefferson is elected President of the United States.
- The quota system of immigration becomes a law in the United States.
- The Parliament Bill is passed.

In most cases your editorial would be different if you were writing for a liberal newspaper from what it would be if you were writing for a conservative paper.





## Countries in Midst of Change

The national spirit in Germany and Italy and the liberal movements in France, Great Britain, and the United States were felt in other parts of the world. This was true in the Balkan Peninsula, where the people had suffered under Turkish rule for centuries. The development of national states in the Balkan Peninsula was difficult, however, because of the many different peoples living there. There were Serbs, Bulgarians, Greeks, Croats, Hungarians, Rumanians, and Slovenes, to mention only the most prominent ones. After the fall of Constantinople in 1453, the Turks had overrun most of the peninsula and made all the people there their unwilling subjects.

### TURKISH RULE OF THE BALKANS

The Turks reached the height of their power in the latter part of the seventeenth century. By that time their empire stretched from the Caspian Sea, the Black Sea, and the Persian Gulf westward, including the coast of North Africa. By 1683 they had conquered all of Hungary. They laid siege to Vienna and seemed likely to push into Western Europe. But the king of Poland came to the aid of the Holy Roman Emperor and together they defeated the Mohammedans. After that, Turkish power waned. Gradually the Turks were pushed

back, and by the end of the seventeenth century Transylvania and Hungary were restored to the Holy Roman Emperor. In the rest of the Balkan Peninsula, however, the Christians were reduced to serfdom and the Turkish army ruled them with a cruel hand. Turkish military rule was not only harsh but very corrupt. Army leaders were jealous of each other. Subject peoples were often able to buy good treatment by high bribes. Such conditions caused the armies of the Sultan to decline in power so that Catherine II of Russia was able to wage a successful war against them. In 1792 the Turks ceded to Russia all the territory north of the Dniester (nēs'tēr) River. Catherine had tried to stir up trouble for Turkey in Greece

*The Sultan permitted all sorts of cruelties and oppressive taxes to be inflicted upon his Balkan subjects.*



but had little success at the time. Later, in 1829, with the backing of Russia, France, and Britain, the Greeks were able to win their freedom from Turkish rule.

**Crimean War** It seemed then that Turkey was a rapidly declining power. In fact, the Tsar of Russia spoke of Turkey in 1853 as the "sick man of Europe" and suggested to the British that since the "sick man" must soon die, they might as well take his territory. This they might easily have done. However, both England and France feared a powerful Russia in the eastern Mediterranean, and wanted the Turkish, or Ottoman, Empire to remain there as a "buffer state," as a nation situated between two powerful nations is called. Russia was eager, nevertheless, to get to the Mediterranean and watched for a chance to weaken the hold of the Turks in the Balkans and Constantinople. At last a quarrel arose between the Tsar and Turkey over the right of Russia to protect the Orthodox Christians in the Holy Land. War followed. England and France, fearing Russia's mo-

tives, entered the war in 1854 on the side of Turkey. The fighting consisted chiefly of the siege of Sevastopol (sě vās'tō pôl) in the Crimean Peninsula, hence the war was known as the Crimean War. It was a costly war in men for both sides, but more men died from disease and starvation than from wounds. Finally Sevastopol fell to the Allies and Russia sued for peace. Russian aggression was stopped for the time being.

It was in the Crimean War that Florence Nightingale started reforms in the care of the wounded.

**Break-up of the Ottoman Empire in Europe** Other peoples in the Balkans besides the Greeks tried to gain their freedom. This was partly due to a strong feeling of nationalism and partly to the cruelty of Turkish rule. While the Christian powers of Western Europe sympathized with the subjects of the Turks, they feared that a group of small and weak Balkan states would be taken over by Russia, or at least dominated by her. This put the Western nations in a peculiar position. They would have liked to see the Balkan peoples independent, yet they feared any growth of Russian power.

The Russian and the Balkan peoples were all Slavs, and Russia posed as a protector of the small Slavic groups. Finally, in 1877-1878, Russia again went to war against Turkey to aid her Slavic cousins. Her success in the war alarmed both Britain and Austria-Hungary. They demanded that a Congress of the great powers meet at Berlin to decide upon a treaty. The Treaty of Berlin (1878) gave independence to most of the peoples who made up the Turkish possessions in Europe. At the same time, Britain and Austria-Hungary were able to block the further expansion of Russia.

*Florence Nightingale, "the angel with the lamp," ministers to the wounded in the Crimean War.*

Cutler Service



## THE BALKAN WARS CAUSE A WORLD CRISIS

The troubles in the Balkans were not over. Serbia wanted an Austro-Hungarian province, Bosnia, and the other newly independent states were not satisfied with their boundaries. The Turkish government was reorganized in 1908 under a group of Young Turks, who attempted to make reforms and strengthen Turkey militarily.

**First Balkan War** In 1912 the states of Bulgaria, Serbia, and Greece entered into a military alliance known as the Balkan League to protect themselves against the outrages of the Turks. When Turkish troops held maneuvers, the Balkan League mobilized. It was little Montenegro, however, that first declared war on Turkey and then asked the Balkan League to join her. Russia, again posing as a sort of big brother to these small Slavic states, advised against war this time. But the League went to war against Turkey and won. At the settlement, Bulgaria, which had proclaimed her independence in 1908, got most of the Turkish territory remaining in Europe. Of Turkey's European possessions, only Constantinople and a small strip along the coast remained.

**Second Balkan War** Dissatisfied, Bulgaria attacked the other Balkan states and a Second Balkan War broke out in 1913. This time Serbia, Greece, Rumania, Montenegro, and Turkey fought against Bulgaria. Bulgaria was defeated and had to give up some of her newly acquired lands. The other countries enlarged their borders at her expense. Turkey got back part of Thrace.

The big powers of Europe watched these wars closely lest they should spread outside

the Balkan Peninsula. Russia wanted her Slavic cousins to gain power, but Austria feared that the nationalistic movement in the Balkans might spread to her own country, which was composed of so many nationalities. Therefore, she looked with disfavor on the happenings in the Balkans. At last the crisis was over. Europe had been spared a major war, but Serbia had not gained a seaport and was still dissatisfied.

1. How were the Turks stopped in their sweep into Europe after the fall of Constantinople?
2. What territory did Catherine the Great take from Turkey?
3. Why did Russia interfere in the affairs of the Balkans?
4. What countries tried to block Russia's attempt to gain the Balkans? Why?
5. What brought about the Crimean War? Who won it?
6. Who was Florence Nightingale?
7. Why was the Congress of Berlin held? What settlement was made there?
8. What conditions in the Balkan Peninsula caused the First Balkan War?
9. What was the outcome of that war? How did it bring on the Second Balkan War?
10. Why were the great powers of Europe interested in the Balkan Wars?

## REVOLTS AGAINST RUSSIAN AUTOCRACY

**Russian Peoples** Russia at the beginning of the nineteenth century was really an empire comprising many different peoples. At the heart of the empire were the Russians, who occupied most of European Russia. On the fringe were many alien nationalities. They had been conquered at some time or other and brought under strict Russian rule. Finland was added in 1809 in



the course of the Napoleonic Wars. A large part of Poland had been acquired piece by piece. In southwestern Russia lived the Little Russians. Many Rumanians lived in Bessarabia. In the Baltic Sea area, Russia ruled Lithuanians, Latvians, and White Russians. Most of these peoples differed from the Great Russians in language, customs, and historical backgrounds, and some differed in religion. For that reason, by the nineteenth century, when popular nationalism was uniting other peoples, many of the peoples of Russia longed for it, too.

### **Westernism and Pan-Slavism**

The Russian Tsars who hoped to hold their sprawling domain together dared not encourage nationalism for fear of promoting revolts. The tsars were quick to suppress discontent. On the other hand, nineteenth-century developments in Europe fanned a kind of nationalistic sentiment among Russians. For example, the liberals in Russia wanted to make their country as progressive as the other powers of Europe. They believed that Russians could gain prestige only by adopting Western ways. Russia should adopt a constitutional government, reform her army, and industrialize her economy, they said. However, those who wanted to base Russian nationalism on race promoted a movement called Pan-Slavism. Many peoples of Eastern and Southeastern Europe belonged to the Slavic branch of the white race. The Russians were led to believe that they had a "sacred mission" to look after the welfare of the Slavs.

### **Russian Anti-Liberals**

Not only did the Russian rulers oppose the self-government of the alien nationalities in the empire but they also stamped out the sparks of liberalism wherever they found them.

Tsar Alexander I (1801-1825) thought seriously about granting the Russians a constitution. He expressed sympathy for Western ideas. In practice, however, he made little progress except in reforming the administration of the government and making it more efficient. It was Alexander I who helped organize the Quadruple Alliance to maintain the *status quo* and prevent radical changes. Alexander's brother, Nicholas I, succeeded him as ruler of Russia. Nicholas did not even pretend to be a liberal. He made it the government's business to track down people with democratic ideas. In fact, in 1833 he joined with the rulers of Austria and Prussia in an alliance against liberalism. In 1849 he helped Austria quell a Hungarian uprising.

### **The "Reforming Tsar"**

Alexander II (1855-1881) took charge of Russian affairs when his father Nicholas died in the midst of the Crimean War. Russia had been beaten and there was much domestic criticism of Russia's conduct of the war. Alexander, who represented his country at the peace conference, sought a peace that would not be too severe. In that way he might quiet the critics. Alexander made an earnest attempt to satisfy the discontented groups. Over the next several years he devoted much attention to social and economic reform, and thus gained a reputation as the "reforming tsar."

One of the most important measures that Alexander II took was the liberation of the serfs. In 1861 a program went into effect that was to free many millions of toilers on the soil. According to the plans, about half of the agricultural land was given to the serfs at that time and annual payments over a period of years would compensate the landlords for their losses.



Historical Pictures Services

On January 22, 1905, an Orthodox priest led a group of strikers in a march to the Winter Palace in St. Petersburg to present a petition to the tsar, asking him to relieve their suffering. The palace troops fired on the group, killing or wounding hundreds and giving the day the name, Red Sunday.

**Alexander III** Alexander III, the son of Alexander II, succeeded to the throne upon the assassination of his father in 1881. He took measures to restrict any liberals or radicals, since he held them responsible for his father's death. When evidences of national sentiment were expressed, they were quickly suppressed. Alexander tried hard to Russify all subject nationalities, against their will. An efficient spy system was established and thousands were sent to Siberia to die in the frozen North. Moreover, drastic pogroms, imprisoning and killing thousands, were staged against the Jews of Russia. It was hoped that Alexander's son, Nicholas II, who came to the throne in 1894, would make the needed economic and political reforms. These hopes were dashed, however, for Nicholas II held the same ideas of government that his father had held. If reforms were to come, the liberals and radicals now believed that they must work quietly underground to lay the plans for them.

1. What peoples made up the Russian Empire in the early nineteenth century?

2. What demands did the liberals in Russia make?
3. For what were Alexander I, Nicholas I, and Alexander II noted?
4. Describe the position of the peasants after they were freed from serfdom in 1861.
5. What type of ruler was Alexander III: Nicholas II?
6. What chance of succeeding did liberalism have in Russia?

## THE SCANDINAVIAN COUNTRIES BECOME DEMOCRACIES

The developments that took place in the Scandinavian countries were very different from those of Turkey and Russia. The Scandinavian countries were second-rate powers at the time of the Congress of Vienna and had little to say about their fate.

At the Congress, Sweden lost the last of her empire to Prussia. To compensate her she was given Norway, which up to this time had been under Danish rule. The two countries formed a union, each with its own parliament but with a common king.

**Norway and Sweden** Norway and Sweden had surprisingly little in common. Norway was poor and sparsely settled. The country is mountainous and deep bays, fjords (fyôrd), indent the rugged western coast. The people of Norway were democratic and the land was fairly well divided among them. In Sweden the land and political affairs were in the hands of the nobles, leaving the masses of the people both poor and powerless. In the nineteenth century Sweden became industrialized, due to her iron, her forests, and her water power; while Norway developed into a trading country with the world's fourth largest merchant marine. At the same time, Sweden, fearing Russian aggression, drew into closer relations with Germany. Norway, on the other hand, became more and more friendly with Great Britain and France.



*The herring fisheries are the most important in Norway, although many other kinds of fish are caught in large quantities. Norway produces more than half the whale oil of the world.*

Finally, in 1905, the Norwegian Parliament declared Norway independent of Sweden. Though Sweden was more powerful, she let the Norwegians go without war. The Norwegians invited a Danish prince to become their king. His powers were limited and the country was democratic polit-

ically. There was no noble class, and in 1913, before the Great Powers did so, Norway gave women suffrage on the same basis as men.

Sweden developed along democratic lines, too, though more slowly. Universal manhood suffrage was adopted, but women were not given the ballot until 1919. Economic conditions improved also.

**Denmark** Denmark, once the most powerful of the Scandinavian countries, became the least powerful. Denmark is a country of low plains, good for farming. In 1864 Prussia took Denmark's two southern provinces of Schleswig-Holstein, which were populated largely by Germans. After that Denmark lived under the fear of further aggression by Prussia. Denmark retained faraway Iceland and Greenland, but in 1916 she sold the Virgin Islands to the United States.

Denmark advanced industrially, politically, and socially. She developed agriculture and dairy farming and became prosperous. In 1901 a new political system was set up that made the monarchy really democratic. Like Norway, Denmark improved her schools to a very high point. Illiteracy was scarcely known in either country.

## THE UNITED NETHERLANDS ARE DISSOLVED

At the Congress of Vienna the Netherlands and Belgium were united to form the United Kingdom of the Netherlands. Like the union between Norway and Sweden, this was not satisfactory. Belgium was chiefly Catholic and was influenced by French culture. Holland was Protestant and her culture was Germanic. The Dutch king tried to impose the Dutch language and



laws upon the Belgians, causing great dissatisfaction. When the Revolution of 1830 swept France, it spread into Belgium and she declared her independence. The French and English favored self-rule for the Belgians, and the Dutch had to let them go their own way.

**Belgium** Belgium developed economically and politically. With natural resources of coal and iron she was able to become an industrial nation. Her position in Europe also brought her trade, which, in turn, brought her prosperity. She early became a constitutional monarchy, and in 1894 universal manhood suffrage was granted.

**The Netherlands** Holland, on the other hand, remained chiefly agricultural and commercial. Holland was very densely populated and needed more land, so the thrifty Dutchmen set about reclaiming land from the sea. This they did by building huge dikes and pumping the water out from behind them. The new lands were used for extensive gardening, especially for the production of high-priced flower bulbs. Holland's merchant marine was one of the best in the world and she drew wealth from her rich East Indian possessions. Living as she did near industrial nations, she exported garden products, flowers, bulbs, fish, and dairy products. While the Netherlands was

*A "polder" is an area of reclaimed land enclosed by a dike. The windmills pump water off the land through a series of drainage ditches. The water is then drawn into the canals which lead into rivers. Holland has many polder landscapes.*

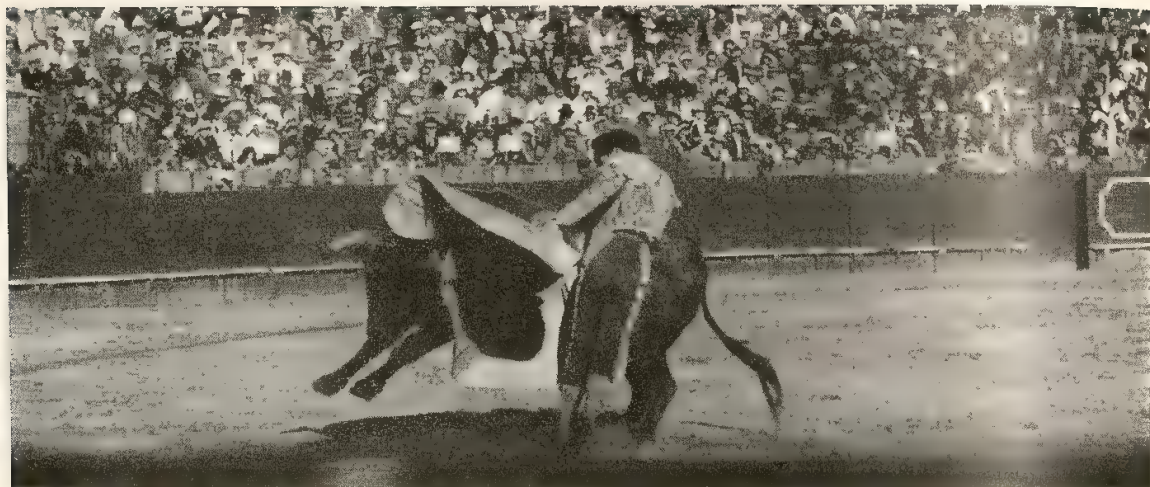


prosperous, the people were slow in gaining political liberties. In 1917, however, women as well as men were granted suffrage and voting was made compulsory.

The commerce of Norway and the Netherlands, the lumber of Norway, the iron of Sweden, the dairy products of Denmark and Holland, and the industries of Belgium make them important in Western Europe.

Courtesy Netherlands Information Service





Rapho-Guillumette

*Much of life in modern Spain is colorful. Its architecture, music, and many of the customs of the rural areas are suggestive of ancient times. Bullfighting was a sport of the ancient Greeks and Romans, introduced into Spain by the Moors.*

## SPAIN AND PORTUGAL REMAIN BACKWARD

### Reasons for Spanish Backwardness

While the Scandinavian and Low Countries were developing along democratic lines, Spain advanced very little. There were several reasons for this. The Pyrenees Mountains cut off the peninsula from the rest of Europe and Spain's culture developed independently. Mountain ranges also rise from the plateau that makes up the peninsula. For this reason it was difficult to make roads and to build railroads in Spain. Consequently the different sections of the country developed different customs, dialects, and dress, which they retained long after Spain became a united nation.

After the loss of her American colonies in the early nineteenth century, the great wealth of the Americas no longer flowed to Spain and she had to depend upon her own resources. But Spain is not a very rich country. Although agriculture is the chief occupation, much of the peninsula is dry and irrigation is necessary. A few Spaniards were immensely wealthy, but the vast majority of the population lived in poverty.

The land was owned by a few rich men and by the Church. Under such conditions of inequality progress was not rapid.

The Spanish people are of a different stock from other Europeans. The Moors left not only their culture but their blood in Spain. The dark eyes and hair of the Spanish people came from their Moorish ancestors.

### Spain Following the Napoleonic Wars

Following the Napoleonic Wars, Spain was unfortunate in having a backward ruler, Ferdinand VII, who abolished reforms made during the Napoleonic period. Ferdinand made Spain an absolute monarchy. He restored all the old abuses, including special privileges and no taxes for nobles. The Inquisition renewed its activities and liberals were ruthlessly crushed. Revolts occurred but in 1823 the Quadruple Alliance sent a French army into Spain to put them down. Ferdinand was restored to power and took vengeance on those who had plotted and supported the revolts against him. The period following his death was one of corrupt government, tyranny, and abuse both in Spain and her colonies.



**Portugal** Portugal was one of the independent states of the Spanish Peninsula before the days of Ferdinand and Isabella and therefore developed its own language and literature. Like Spain, Portugal was cut off from the rest of Europe by the Pyrenees Mountains. For a short time Spain was able to force her rule on Portugal, but in 1640 Portugal again became independent and remained so. It was able to do this partly because of a strong nationalistic feeling among its people and partly because England befriended the little country.

Portugal's political history was stormy. Its rulers were often tyrants and despots. Taxes were high, politics corrupt, and there was no social legislation. Discontent grew until, in 1908, both the king and the crown prince were assassinated. In 1911 a republic was set up. The republic passed laws suppressing religious orders and confiscating the lands held by them. But the republic did not end the corruption in government. The people continued to be dissatisfied with the government and many strikes were called.

1. What was the condition of the Scandinavian countries in the Middle Ages?
2. Which country developed an empire in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries?
3. What changes were made in the Scandinavian countries by the Congress of Vienna?
4. Compare Norway and Sweden in the nineteenth century. How did Norway become independent?
5. Why did the Netherlands and Belgium not work together well under the union of the two countries? Why did they separate?
6. Why were Spain and Portugal backward?
7. What were the political and economic conditions in each country mentioned in this chapter at the opening of World War I?

## JAPAN EMERGES FROM HER ISOLATION

The new nationalism was not confined to European countries. Japan, half way around the world, was stirred by the same spirit.

Japan had had a brief period of contact with the outside world when Francis Xavier established a Christian mission there in the sixteenth century. At that time many Japanese became Christians and the Japanese government became alarmed, for Christianity seemed to be undermining the state religion of Shintoism, which honored the gods and revered the emperor. Finally, all Christian priests were banned, and by 1615 Christianity was outlawed. Native Japanese Christians suffered persecution. To make sure that no more missionaries would slip into the country, the Japanese government cut off all trade relations with Spain and Portugal. Japan had cut herself off from the West.

In July, 1853, Commodore Matthew C. Perry of the United States entered Yokohama Harbor with four warships. The Japanese were interested in the sewing machines, models of telegraph and railways, and other mechanical instruments that Perry gave the emperor. The next year Perry returned with more ships and the emperor made a treaty with him. Japan agreed to open a port to American trade and to permit an American consul to take up residence there. Other countries soon obtained similar privileges.

### Outside Contacts Influence Japan

The opening of Japan to the outside world led to a revolution in the Japanese government in 1867-69. A reform party became strong enough to influence the new emperor. They wanted their country west-



ernized and modernized. The shogun lost his position, and the emperor, called the Mikado (mī kā' dō), was made the head of the government. Feudalism was abolished and the peasants became owners of the lands they cultivated. The feudal army was abolished and a national army was established. Shintoism (shīn'tō izm) became the state religion. A new capital was set up at Yedo, which was renamed Tokyo.

The new emperor set about to Europeanize his nation. Schools were opened and attendance was made compulsory. Students were sent abroad to study. Commissions also were sent to Europe and the United States to study Western institutions and governments. A constitution was drawn up setting up a parliament of two houses but leaving the executive power to the emperor. Japan built a navy and modernized her army, which was under the emperor instead of the parliament. Western industrial methods were studied and copied. Silk and cotton textile industries grew by leaps and bounds. By the end of the nineteenth century Japan had become a modern industrial nation.

*Commodore Perry brought to Yokohama models of a steam engine, a grindstone, and other products, thus propagandizing for the United States.*

Library of Congress



## CHINA THROWS OFF THE RULE OF THE MANCHUS

The story of Japan's neighbor, China, was very different from that of Japan. At the beginning of the nineteenth century China was still a loosely-knit empire of several provinces, held together under an emperor. They were bound more by cultural than political ties. The princes of the different provinces paid visits to the emperor from time to time and brought him tribute. Besides the provinces of China, there were on the outskirts semi-independent states from which China claimed tribute: Manchuria, Korea, Mongolia, Tibet, Burma, Indo-China, and other smaller states. It was easy for such a sprawling empire so loosely held together to have its border states seized by powerful nations.

**Manchu Rulers** The Manchurian ruler in the seventeenth century had succeeded in getting control of China, thus uniting Manchuria and the Chinese Empire under his rule. The Manchu rulers objected to foreign influence. Missionaries and traders who came to the country did so at the risk of losing their property and their lives.

**Opium Wars** In 1839 a quarrel arose between Great Britain and China over the smuggling of opium into China. The Chinese government had forbidden the importation of the harmful drug, from which the British had been making large profits. The Opium War (1839-1842) resulted in a victory for Great Britain and the opening to foreign trade of five Chinese ports. The island of Hong Kong was ceded to Britain.

Later trouble broke out again. A French missionary was killed and some English seamen were seized by China. This second

war (1856-1860) was also a victory for the Western Powers. By the Treaty of Tientsin (tin'tsin') more ports were opened to Western trade, foreign countries were permitted to send their representatives to Peking, and foreign missionaries were protected.

**Open-Door Policy** As time passed, Europeans and Japanese businessmen saw that there was money to be made in China if they could only develop the mines and other resources of the country, using the abundant and cheap Chinese labor. But Europeans were not safe in China. Therefore each power tried to carve out one piece of Chinese territory, or a sphere of influence, for itself. Within that section they could maintain order and protect their nationals and their businesses. The United States looked with disapproval upon this policy, which they feared would lead to the dividing of China among the Western powers and Japan. Therefore the United States asserted its "Open-Door Policy," saying that there must be "equal opportunity for commerce and industry of all nations in China" and that the territorial integrity of China must be guaranteed.

**Boxer Rebellion** Hatred of the "foreign dogs" grew in China. The Dowager Empress particularly hated them. At length, encouraged by her attitude, the "Order of the Righteous Harmony Fists," commonly called the Boxers, began demonstrations against missionaries and other white persons in China. Many of them were killed. In 1900 actual war against the foreigners began in Peking. The Boxers were promptly defeated by an international army and China was forced to pay for the damages she had inflicted upon the property



of the foreigners. The sum given the United States was over \$24,000,000. Less than half that amount was needed to pay the claims of American citizens. Therefore, the United States gave back the part not needed. This the Chinese government used to set up a fund to educate Chinese students in the United States, and hundreds of students were given scholarships to attend American colleges.

**Chinese Revolution** The Dowager Empress now made some minor reforms, but they did not satisfy the young Chinese reformers. In 1908 the empress died and was succeeded by an infant emperor, who came to the throne under a weak regent. Some reforms were promised, but the revolutionists, led by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, were not satisfied with the calling of a national assembly, a compromise measure. In 1911 they laid plans for a republican form of government in which there would be no place for the emperor. The next year the emperor abdicated and





Charles P. Cushman

*This statue of Dr. Sun Yat-sen stands in San Francisco's "Chinatown." Sun spent some years in the United States.*

the Manchu dynasty came to an end in China. A Republic was set up under the guidance of Dr. Sun Yat-sen, who had been advocating this form of government for a long time. Sun was not able to put all his theories into effect; yet he remained the guiding spirit of the revolution until his death in 1925.

It was too much to expect China to develop a stable government immediately. Most of her more than four hundred million people were illiterate and the economic conditions of China were very bad. China's rich resources lay largely untouched because the country was not industrialized. Foreign countries continued to exert their influence and various groups within the country did not agree upon the form of government that their country needed.

1. What did Francis Xavier have to do with Japan?
2. Why did Japan become a "hermit nation" early in the 17th century?
3. How did Commodore Perry persuade Japan to abandon her isolation?

4. What changes in her government, industry, and culture did Japan make after she established contacts with the Western nations?
5. What was the relationship between China and Manchuria at the beginning of the seventeenth century? Name the other states that had the same relationship.
6. What dynasty ruled China from the seventeenth to the twentieth century?
7. What was the attitude of the Chinese government toward foreigners?
8. Why were foreign merchants eager to get into China?
9. Tell the story of the Opium Wars. What were the results?
10. What was the "Open-Door" Policy?
11. What was the Boxer Rebellion? the Boxer Fund?
12. Why was there a revolution in China? Date? Who was the leader?
13. Why was a republic so hard to maintain in China?

#### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Were the nations of Europe justified in wanting to push the Turks out of Europe?
2. Why did Russia want Constantinople and the Balkan territory? Why did Great Britain not want her to have it?
3. Why did Russia feel that she was the country to protect the Orthodox Christians in the Turkish Empire?
4. What evidence was there that Turkey was the "sick man of Europe"?
5. Explain why the Balkan countries were called the "tinder box."
6. Were the peasants of Russia much better off after their liberation in 1861?
7. Why did the liberals of Russia have to work underground while those of Britain worked in the open?



8. Was the Quadruple Alliance justified in trying to stamp out revolution in Spain?

9. Why was Japan able to modernize herself in so short a time?

10. Did Japan copy from the West only what was good?

11. Why was there a long tradition of friendship between China and the United States?

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. If there is a pupil in the class or a citizen in your community from one of the countries discussed in this chapter, ask him to tell the class about the country and its people. Pictures will make the talk more meaningful.

2. Write a letter that might have been sent by one of the following:

a. Matthew C. Perry when he entered Japan

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

Boxers • buffer state • Duma • fjords • mikado • mir • Open-Door Policy • Opium Wars • Order of the Righteous • Harmony Fists • Pan-Slavism • Red Sunday • "reforming tsar" • Russify • shogun • "sick man of Europe"

2. Do you know your dates?

1453 • 1853 • 1854 • 1860 • 1878 • 1900 • 1904-1905 • 1905 • 1912 • 1913

3. Places to locate on the map:

Balkan Peninsula • Baltic Sea • Belgium • Bessarabia • Black Sea • Bosnia • Bulgaria • Burma • Caspian Sea • China • Denmark • Dniester River • East Indies • Finland • Greece • Greenland • Holland • Hong Kong • Hungary • Iceland • Indo-China • Japan • Korea • Manchuria • Mongolia • Montenegro • Netherlands • Norway • Persian Gulf • Poland • Pomerania • Portugal • Prussia • Schleswig-Holstein • Siam • Sevastopol • Tibet • Tientsin • Turkish Empire (1920) • Turkish Empire (1914) • Vienna • Virgin Islands • West Indies • Yokohama

4. Can you identify these persons?

Alexander I • Alexander II • Alexander III • Catherine II • Ferdinand VII • Xavier • Nicholas I • Nicholas II • Matthew C. Perry • Sun Yat-sen

*This is a Japanese artist's idea of Commodore Perry.*

Library of Congress



b. Florence Nightingale from Crimea

c. A Russian exile in Siberia

d. A man in St. Petersburg who witnessed Red Sunday

e. A French or British soldier in the Opium Wars

f. A Chinese student in the United States on a Boxer Fund scholarship

3. Read a biography of Florence Nightingale, Dr. Sun Yat-sen, or Alexander II and give a brief review of it to the class.

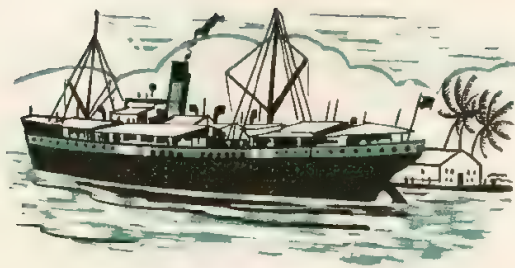
### III. At the Blackboard

1. Look up and write on the blackboard the words for father, mother, bread, and shoes in the languages of as many countries mentioned in this chapter as possible. Can you tell whether these words came from the same source?

2. Each member of the class may select one country discussed in this unit, and make out a menu for breakfast that would be typical of that country. Write the menus on the blackboard and compare them?

### IV. An Assembly Program

Prepare an assembly program featuring the national anthems of nations of the world.



## *Powerful Nations Race for Empires*

**G**reat Britain in the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries had established an empire in North America, the West Indies, Africa, and India. In building up this empire, Britain had defeated the Spaniards, the Dutch, and the French. When she applied her policy of mercantilism in the American colonies, however, she was met with an obstinate rebuff.

### **THE BRITISH BUILD THE WORLD'S LARGEST EMPIRE**

The loss of the thirteen American colonies did not stop the expansion of Great Britain; she built a second empire. At the Congress of Vienna she was permitted to keep several small but strategically placed colonies where she could establish coaling stations for her increasing commerce. For the century after the Congress of Vienna Britain continued her imperialistic policy. In fact, it was a generally accepted belief in Great Britain that imperialism was a British duty to mankind. The English writer, Rudyard Kipling, called it "the white man's burden," and many statesmen in England agreed with him. Britain developed a more liberal policy in keeping with this belief. The Liberals in Parliament who advocated free trade also approved of more economic

and political freedom in that part of the empire where Englishmen were most numerous. Other colonies made up chiefly of natives were still ruled largely from London. Each colony, however, was given treatment that seemed to the English government best suited for the colony's needs and of most benefit to Great Britain.

**Canada before 1837** When the British acquired Canada as a result of the Seven Years' War, they really had two Canadas, French Canada along the lower St. Lawrence River and British Canada west of the river. There were about 90,000 Frenchmen and French Canadians in Canada at that time and fewer than one thousand Englishmen. Because the British government was eager to establish good relations with their new French subjects, they passed the Quebec Act in 1774 permitting them to practice their Roman Catholic religion, to have their own civil laws, and use their French language.

Following the American Revolution many Tories, or Loyalists, who preferred to remain under British rule rather than in the United States, fled to Canada, thus increasing the number of people of British origin in that country. The British made some settlements in Nova Scotia and the St. Lawrence valley, but they settled in larger

numbers in the land west of the French. Shortly afterward, William Pitt, the British prime minister, divided Canada into Upper Canada (Ontario), which was chiefly English, and Lower Canada (Quebec), which was chiefly French. This division was not popular with either the French or the British. The French resented an Englishman as governor, and in both Lower and Upper Canada there was friction between the appointed governor and the Assembly.

**Durham Report on Canada** In 1837 a revolt broke out in Lower Canada in protest against acts of the governor. Almost immediately the rebellion spread to Upper Canada. It was quickly suppressed, but Britain sent Lord Durham to Canada to study the situation and to make a report. There were two important recommendations in his report. First, that Upper and Lower Canada should be united and that eventually the other English colonies in North America should be joined to them in a federal union. Second, that Canadians be given self-rule. These two principles, federation and self-government, were the basis of a new British colonial policy, which was later put into effect in all her English-speaking colonies.

*Canada is one of the world's largest wheat-producing countries. The province of Saskatchewan has fertile soil, a favorable climate, and more sunshine during the summer than districts farther south, which produces a fine quality of grain.*

**Canada, the First Self-governing Dominion** Upper and Lower Canada were joined in a federation in 1840. A few years later Canada was given self-government, except for control of her foreign affairs. In 1867 the British North American Act was passed. By this, New Brunswick and Nova Scotia joined with the federation to form the Dominion of Canada. Later other colonies were added until all of the territory north of the United States, except Newfoundland and Alaska, became part of the Dominion of Canada. Canada then had an area larger than the United States. Newfoundland entered the Dominion in 1946.

Canada's government was patterned after that of Great Britain, with a governor general appointed by the British government and representing the king. The upper house of Parliament, called the Senate, is composed of members appointed by the governor general for life. The lower house, the House of Commons, is elected by the people. Each province has a lieutenant governor and an assembly of representatives.

**Economic Conditions of Canada** Canada has a varied climate and resources. In the early days of the colony, Canadians were primarily engaged in hunting and

Bureau of Publications, Saskatchewan





fishing. Fishing remains an important occupation along both the east and west coasts. As the West developed, agriculture became important, and wheat was grown in great quantities on the plains. In the heavily wooded areas lumbering developed. Gold was found on the border of Alaska, and aluminum, nickel, copper, asbestos, and zinc in various parts of the country. More recently large deposits of uranium and iron ore have been discovered. By the early years of the twentieth century, manufacturing had become important in the Niagara Falls area, where there was plentiful water power.

Through the years a good trade developed between Canada and the United States. This came about despite the fact that Canada and Great Britain were closely allied in commerce, and also despite the fact that both Canada and the United States produced quantities of agricultural products and had tariff walls against each other. As a matter of fact, Canada became the best customer that the United States has.

1. Of what did the first British Empire consist?
2. How and when did Britain's Second Empire develop?

*Far from Canada's wheatfields, the vast ranches of Australia supply the world with huge quantities of wool, mutton, and lamb. In Australia, the sheep outnumber the people by a large margin.*

3. In what ways did Britain change her colonial policy in the nineteenth century?
4. What were Upper and Lower Canada?
5. What was the Durham Report?
6. Under what circumstances did the Dominion of Canada come into existence?
7. Describe the government of Canada.
8. What resources and occupations do the Canadians have?

**Australia** At the time of the American Revolution little was known about the Pacific beyond the fact that it was a vast expanse of water that had taken Magellan more than three months to cross. At the time of the American Revolutionary War, a British captain, James Cook, was exploring the central and southern parts of the vast ocean. He made expeditions which led to the discovery of the Hawaiian Islands, and he sailed around New Zealand. Cook also landed at Botany Bay in Australia and claimed the land for George III.

In 1788 a fleet of British ships crowded with men and women from British prisons arrived in New South Wales. Some of the passengers were criminals, but most of them had been thrown into prison for minor offenses or for not paying their debts. At any rate, about five hundred of them landed on



Monkmeyer

the shores of what their captain called "the finest harbor in the world." Here they founded the town of Sydney, which has grown into one of the world's chief ports. Until 1840 Britain continued to use Australia as a penal colony.

The exploration and settling of Australia proved to be difficult, and its eight millions of white people still live chiefly on the southeastern coast. The northern forty per cent of the continent is in the tropics and the interior is a hot desert. It was not until 1862 that an explorer was able to cross the desert from north to south. One fifth of the continent, which is nearly as large as the United States, is still unsettled.

Despite these difficulties, the early settlers in Australia pushed into the "bush," as the land beyond the settlements is called. Early in the history of Australia an army officer introduced sheep and began what has turned out to be the country's greatest source of wealth, the wool industry. Australia produces more wool than any other country in the world and stands fourth among the nations of the world in the production of gold.

Other colonies were founded on the continent. These developed independently because of economic differences. The Australians were the first people to use the secret ballot (1855), since called the Australian ballot. In 1900 the British Parliament passed the Commonwealth of Australia Act, uniting the six colonies into a nation. Its government is similar to that of Canada, but with more self-government for the individual states.

**New Zealand** The Dutch navigator, Abel Janszoon Tasman, discovered New Zealand more than a century before

Captain Cook explored its coasts. The British followed up Cook's exploration and in 1840 started permanent settlements there. They found the natives, the Maoris (mä'-ō rīz), highly intelligent.

New Zealand, like Australia, developed slowly. Both countries were very British in their outlook and discouraged immigration from other countries, especially the Orient. They passed strict immigration laws for this purpose. New Zealand was the leader in social legislation. Women were first given the privilege of voting in New Zealand in 1893. The aged were protected by old-age pensions. Workmen's compensation protected wage earners from the expense of accidents. Labor disputes were brought before special labor arbitration courts. The government provided cheap credit to farmers who needed money. The influence of the labor unions was partly responsible for the government ownership of railroads, insurance companies, and coal mines. By socializing those industries, the unions hoped to reduce the cost of their services to the citizens.

New Zealand is primarily an agricultural country. Like Australia, it raises sheep in great numbers. Dairy products and grains are also exported.

1. Who were Captain Cook and Abel Tasman?
2. Upon what commodities did the economic life of Australia depend?
3. Why was there a feeling of sectionalism in Australia?
4. What was the Commonwealth of Australia Act?
5. In what ways were Australia and New Zealand alike?
6. Cite some social legislation passed in New Zealand.

**Early History of Ireland** As early as the twelfth century, English rulers had been attempting to subdue Ireland. They made such slow progress that by 1500 England's authority was flouted outside the city of Dublin. In the sixteenth century England succeeded in completing the occupation of Ireland, but not in making loyal or even faithful subjects of the people. When Oliver Cromwell became head of the English government, a revolt broke out in Ireland. With a thorough ruthlessness that was characteristic of him, Cromwell subdued Ireland. Then he encouraged Scotchmen and Englishmen to settle in Ireland. Most of them settled in the northern counties, but wherever they settled they were given land and special social, political, and economic privileges.

**Act of Union** Ireland had had a parliament since the Middle Ages, but through their political privileges the Protestants had gained control of it. The Roman Catholics staged revolts from time to time against the rule of the minority, and in 1801 the English Parliament passed the Act of Union, which united Britain and Ireland to form the United Kingdom and abolished the Irish Parliament at Dublin. The Irish sent one hundred representatives to the House of Commons and twenty-eight peers to the House of Lords in London.

**Irish Problems** This did not satisfy the Irish. They still had many grievances. In the first place, Roman Catholics were excluded from Parliament although at least four fifths of the Irish people were Roman Catholics. In the second place, the Church of England was established in Ireland and all Irishmen paid taxes to support it even though they were



not members. A third grievance concerned the land, much of which was owned by Englishmen who lived in England and cared little about the property so long as they got high rents from it. This meant that the Irish farmers were poor and often evicted for nonpayment of rent. Most of the people lived in poor cottages on the small farms.

### Political and Religious Reforms

It took Great Britain a long time to remedy these grievances and in the meantime a hearty hatred of England grew up in Ire-





## IMPERIALISM AROUND THE WORLD 1914

U.S.
  ENGLAND
  RUSSIA
  FRANCE
  GERMANY
  ITALY

land. The Catholic Emancipation Act, passed in 1829, gave Roman Catholics the right to hold offices and to be elected to Parliament. In 1869 Parliament disestablished the Anglican Church in Ireland. Henceforth the Roman Catholics did not have to pay taxes to support a church to which they did not belong.

**Emigration** When the potato crop failed from time to time, thousands of people died of starvation. Many thousands of others, to escape a like fate, left Ireland

and went to other countries.

**Land Reforms** The Liberal party in England, under the leadership of William E. Gladstone, finally took several measures to ease the economic conditions of the Irish. Two land reform acts, the first passed in 1870, checked the harshness of the landlords. The second act (1881) guaranteed fair rent, fixity of tenure, and free sale. The Conservative party later passed other land acts that provided the tenants with loans to buy their lands.



Irish Export Promotion Board

*The raising of flax and its manufacture into linen is one of the most important industries of modern Ireland. These spinning machines are in a factory in Athlone.*

**Home Rule** While the Irish were demanding economic reforms, they were also insisting on self-government. Irishmen who hoped to secure home rule by act of Parliament organized the Irish Nationalist party. A Home Rule Bill became law in 1914. Led by Arthur Griffith, a party known as the Sinn Feiners fought against this limited home rule and demanded complete self-government. Irish restlessness and resistance continued.

1. When did the English conquest of Ireland begin?
2. What part did Cromwell play in the conquest of Ireland?
3. What was the Act of Union?
4. What were the four important grievances that the Irish had against Britain in the nineteenth century?
5. How far did Britain go in the nineteenth century toward meeting those grievances?
6. What was the Home Rule Bill of 1914? Why were the Irish dissatisfied with it?

**Early Days of British Control in South Africa** The southern tip of

Africa had long been a halfway station on the way to the Orient when Great Britain acquired it at the Congress of Vienna. The Portuguese had arrived there first and claimed it. Later it was taken by the Dutch, who brought settlers in from Holland. The Dutch did not expand very far inland but stayed near the coast.

After the British got control, the Dutch settlers, who objected to British rule, moved northward. This "Great Trek," as it was called by the Dutch, was a picturesque period in the history of the country. Loaded with household goods and farming tools, the wagons of the Dutch Boers (boers), or farmers, were drawn by oxen or horses into the new lands of the interior. There they founded the new states of Natal, Orange Free State, and Transvaal (träns-väl') and settled down to farming.

They were not left long in peace, for late in the nineteenth century gold and diamonds were found within their new homelands. Thousands of people rushed into the region in search of wealth. The Boers were offered high prices for their lands and so again they trekked northward away from



the newcomers. But mines were found in their newest homeland and again they found themselves surrounded by British settlers. Soon the region became noted for its large and valuable diamonds.

**Cecil Rhodes** In the meantime a young British Oxford graduate, Cecil Rhodes, went out to South Africa to live in the new country and regain his health. He did regain his health, but he also gained wealth from diamond and gold mines. Ninety per cent of the diamonds shipped from Africa came from companies that Rhodes controlled. But more important than increasing his personal wealth, he carved out two colonies for Britain, South Rhodesia and North Rhodesia. His dream was to unite all of Africa for Britain.

**Boer War** The stumbling block to Rhodes's dream was the Boer president, Dr. Paul Kruger, who refused to give full citizenship rights to the British who had settled in his country. Dr. Jameson, an associate of Cecil Rhodes, led a raid against the Boers in Transvaal, expecting to force the Dutch to co-operate. His raid failed and led to even more bitter hatred between the Dutch and the English. Finally, in 1899, the Boer War broke out between the Dutch Republics and the British. Dr. Kruger and his able generals fought so well that the war dragged on for three years. In the end Britain won, and the Boer Republics were added to the growing list of British colonies.

Many of the Boers continued to resent their British rulers, although the British spent about fifteen million dollars in the next few years in settling and improving the country and the colonies were given self-government. In 1910 an act of Parliament

brought them together in the Union of South Africa, after the model of Australia and Canada.

The race problem was a grave one in South Africa. The native Negro made up most of the total ten million population. There were also many Asians, mostly Indians, who had settled in South Africa. Because the non-European population was so large, the Boers had put severe restrictions upon them, which were continued by the British settlers. Most of the hard work was done by the Negroes for very low wages. The colored population had to live in restricted areas and in squalor. Most of them were compelled to use passes to move from place to place. Suffrage was restricted to persons of European descent. A strong Nationalist party fought for white supremacy at any cost in South Africa.

*The world's largest diamonds have been found in South Africa, which leads the world in diamond production.*

Philip Gendreau







Courtesy Pakistan Information Service

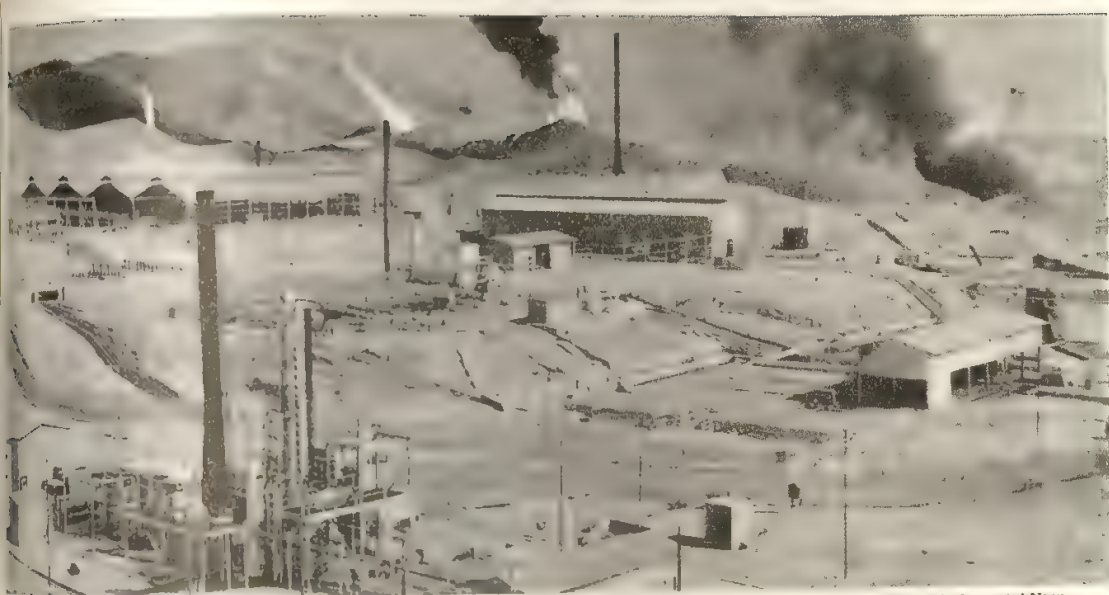
*Jute is grown widely in Pakistan, although that country's chief agricultural product is rice. The jute, like most of Pakistan's exports, is shipped in the raw for lack of industrial plants.*

**British Problems in India** One phase of the Seven Years' War (1756-63) saw France and England battling for control of India. As elsewhere, the British defeated the French. However, India was not to be governed directly as a part of the British Empire. Instead, the British East India Company had the ruling power. Because of charges of corruption against the company, Parliament reduced its political and commercial privileges and took on the responsibility of government.

The East India Company was abolished in 1858. India then became a part of the empire under the administration of a secretary of state in the English cabinet and the direction of a viceroy in India. But the Indians had very little self-government. Towards the end of the century a nationalist movement known as "Young India" arose demanding self-government. The British made concessions in 1909. Indians were to have more voice in local government and to hold positions in the councils of the viceroy and secretary of state.

The problems of India were many. Economically there was need of improvements to enable the over 350,000,000 to live with a decent standard of living. Many of the princes were fabulously rich, while their subjects struggled in dire poverty. Socially and religiously the Indians were hopelessly divided. The people of India were still divided into a rigid caste system. The different religious customs made it difficult for the Indians to work together. The majority were Hindus, but about seventy million were Mohammedans. The British policy of trying to replace the Indian customs with Western ways only further complicated the task of managing that great sub-continent.

The British were not discouraged by their problems in India, however. Having penetrated India, in 1885 they took Burma. After a series of difficulties with China over Tibet, Britain gained the southern part of Tibet in 1914. They also gained control of the rich Malay Peninsula, which became famous for its tin and rubber as well as for



Authentic colored News

*After World War I, Iran became a chief source of Britain's oil supply. This is a British oil field in the southwestern part of Iran. This rich natural resource has made Iran one of the troubled areas of the world.*

the port of Singapore. But Britain was headed for serious trouble in her vast empire before many years passed.

1. What was the first European nation to claim South Africa? the second?
2. How did Great Britain get South Africa?
3. Tell the story of the "Great Trek."
4. What states did the Boers settle north of Cape Colony?
5. Who was Cecil Rhodes? Dr. Kruger? Dr. Jameson?
6. How did the Boer War come about?
7. How did Great Britain treat the conquered states?
8. What was "Young India"?
9. Discuss the race problem in South Africa.
10. When did England drive the French out of India?
11. How did the English govern this part of their empire?
12. How successful were the Indians in getting self-government before World War I?
13. What were the chief problems that England faced in ruling India?

**British Interest in Persia (Iran) and Afghanistan** Persia and neighboring Afghanistan were backward countries that were important to Britain's defense of India. Britain could not look with favor on any foothold a rival power might secure in those countries. Her chief rival in that part of the world was Russia. By the end of the nineteenth century the Russian government had the ruler, called the Shah, of Persia very much under its influence. The British government tried to encourage the Shah to resist the Russians. It sent warships, lent money, and sent diplomats in an effort to befriend the Shah. When the Japanese defeated Russia in the Russo-Japanese War in 1905, the Persians gave a sigh of relief. Russia had been weakened and there was now an opportunity for domestic reform. The Shah was compelled to grant his people a constitution and set up a representative assembly.

A few months later Great Britain managed to reduce Russia's influence in Persia. In a treaty dealing with several of their



Asian problems, Russia and Britain agreed to divide Persia into three spheres of influence. Russia would be free to develop northern Persia; Britain would carry on her economic activities in the southern part; and the middle area would be shared by both. On the other hand, Afghanistan was to be a British sphere of influence or a British protectorate, which meant that while the country was nominally ruled by native rulers, the British government told the rulers what to do.

**Egypt, a Troublesome Protectorate** After several years of intrigue and war, in 1841 the Mohammedan governor of Egypt gained partial independence for his country from the Turkish Sultan, although he continued to pay tribute to Turkey. The British were interested in Egypt, too. British explorers had traced the Nile to its source, and the English were interested in the eastern Mediterranean because their merchants went that way to India. But France also had an interest. A French company built the important Suez Canal connecting the Mediterranean and the Red Seas.

The ambitious ruler of Egypt, who held the title of khedive (kĕ dĕv'), wanted to modernize his country and also to extend his rule over the Egyptian Sudan, a large area up the Nile. It was peopled by wandering tribesmen who resisted any attempt to bring them under control. Besides spending money on these projects, the khedive was a spendthrift on his own pleasures. The money for all these things had to come from European bankers and investors. When he went into debt so deeply that he could get no more loans, France and Britain stepped in and asked the Sultan of Turkey to depose him and name a new khedive. Then

the French and British established a joint control over Egypt's finances.

The economies and high taxes necessary to straighten out Egypt's financial troubles caused dissatisfaction in the country. The foreigners living there were denounced and they appealed to their governments for protection. The French decided to withdraw, but the British sent in troops to bring about order in the country. This was difficult and for several years impossible. When order was at last restored, the British did not leave, despite promises to do so.

In 1875 the almost bankrupt Egyptian ruler had sold his shares in the Suez Canal to the British government. This deal, which had been made by Prime Minister Benjamin Disraeli, gave the British a controlling interest in the Suez Canal. British occupation of Egypt now helped to protect that interest. But the Egyptians resented British occupation and from time to time tried to get rid of British "protection."

Another problem faced Britain. A group of tribesmen overran the Egyptian Sudan. When an English army was wiped out, the British people were so stirred that they joined the Egyptians in controlling the Sudan and putting down the fierce tribes.

**British Possessions on the Seven Seas** The map of the world in the nineteenth century showed dozens of little islands and ports under the British rule besides the dominions, India, and her protectorates. These were obtained chiefly at the expense of the native rulers. Most of them were governed from London and had no self-rule. In addition Britain had possessions in Africa, Asia, and South America. Many of these possessions were inhabited by people who had had no outside contacts before the British came. All races of people were



included in these colonies: Negroes were in Africa, Orientals were in Hong Kong, and other peoples in Malay and Honduras. There were Mohammedans, Jews, Christians, and many primitive religions were practiced by the different peoples. There were all stages of civilization, from the primitive Negro tribesmen of Africa to the highly cultured people who sent their sons to the best universities of Europe to be educated. Never before had a nation attempted to rule an empire of such extent and inhabited by so many different types of people.

## THE FRENCH EMPIRE, THE SECOND LARGEST IN THE WORLD

By 1914 France had acquired a third large empire, having lost her first empire to the British and the second empire with the fall of Napoleon. As early as 1830 France had seized a part of northern Africa, Algiers, from the natives. Later she gave up her contest with Britain for Egypt but she extended her influence in other parts of Africa. In 1881 Tunis became a protectorate. In 1904 she set up a protectorate over most of Morocco. These North African colonies were valuable to France for their fruits and olive oil. The natives were Arabs of the Mohammedan faith and therefore closely tied to the Moslem world of the eastern Mediterranean area.

France did not take over these possessions unchallenged. Italy and Germany also were looking for colonies. Italy wanted Tunis, which was directly across the Mediterranean from her and which Rome had wrested from Carthage centuries before. Italy's interest was partly sentimental.

1. What was the title of the Egyptian ruler?
2. What was the relationship between Egypt and Turkey?
3. Explain how the British and French came to take over the finances of Egypt.
4. Why did the British send troops to occupy Egypt?
5. How did the British get control of the Suez Canal?
6. What different types of people made up the British empire?
7. Why was the empire hard to rule?

*The "new India" is typified in this factory on a former estate, where young women are working. India's problems are great, among them a lack of food and industries to support her dense population.*

Black Star



When, in 1905, France attempted to spread her protection over part of Morocco, William II of Germany paid a friendly visit to Morocco which, he made clear, was an independent nation. This brought the First Moroccan Crisis, which seemed in danger of plunging Europe into war, but France held back and the matter was settled for the time being at an international meeting. Again, in 1911, Germany challenged France's acts in Morocco. Each time war seemed likely, but each time it was averted. In the end France took most of Morocco, but these incidents increased the tension between France and Germany.

French imperialism continued. She spread her control over most of the vast Sahara region and over Equatorial Africa, in the heart of the continent. This region was rich in gold, copper, lead, zinc, ivory, and precious stones, including diamonds. France's largest African colony in both population and area was French West Africa. It produced valuable oils, fruits, rubber, and woods. In 1896 the island of Madagascar was declared a colony. There agriculture and stock raising become important.

In 1862 Napoleon III started to penetrate Indo-China, and gradually France took over the rest of that land. Indo-China was about the size of Texas. Its products were tin, tungsten, manganese, pepper, rice, rubber, and lumber. It became valuable to France for these products.

The French were not themselves a colonizing people, although they held the second largest empire in the world. France did not need to find room for a surplus population, for she had none. Besides, her possessions were chiefly in the tropics where it was difficult for white men to live. It was largely for their products that France used her possessions.

### **The Rich Empire of the Dutch**

Portugal had claimed the chief islands of the East Indies in the sixteenth century and had built up a thriving trade with them. After Spain took over Portugal, the newly liberated Netherlands took advantage of the situation to seize this trade and to claim the rich East Indies. The Dutch also held for a time the colony of New Amsterdam in America and Cape Colony in southern Africa. She lost New Amsterdam to the English in 1664, and Cape Colony as a result of the Napoleonic Wars. She kept her part of Guiana on the coast of South America.

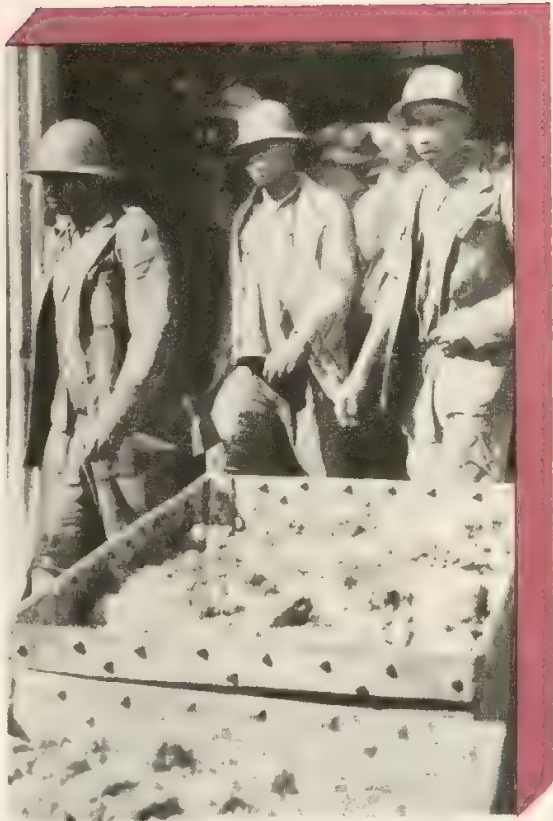
The Dutch possessions were approximately sixty times the size of the small mother country and had a population about eight times as great. The East Indies were one of the richest colonial possessions in the world. Rubber was introduced there from South America. The climate proved to be well-adapted to its growth and rubber became one of the most sought-after products. Tin, rubber, and spices all brought wealth to the Netherlands.

1. What lands did the Third Republic of France get before 1914?
2. What was the First Moroccan Crisis? How did it and following crises affect the relations between the Germans and French?
3. What colonies did France acquire and what did she get from them?
4. Under what circumstances did the Dutch come into possession of the East Indies?
5. What colonies did the Dutch lose to the British?
6. How did the size and population of the Dutch colonial possessions compare with the size and population of the mother country?
7. Why were the East Indies so valuable?

## A BELGIAN RULER CARVES OUT AN EMPIRE

The people of the civilized world in the late nineteenth century were shocked by the stories coming out of central Africa, the Belgian Congo, which was held by Leopold II of Belgium as a private enterprise. David Livingstone, a British missionary in Africa, became interested in the country and turned explorer. As such he performed deeds of heroism as a friend of the natives and as an opponent of slavery. His fame reached the outside world. Then for a time he was not heard from, and an American newspaper sent Henry Stanley to find him. He did find Dr. Livingstone among the natives, and both America and Europe were stirred by Stanley's stories of the missionary-explorer.

**How Belgium Acquired the Congo** Stanley urged business men to develop the great resources of Africa. King Leopold II, seeing the wisdom of his advice, established a company to develop the heart of Africa, the Congo River region. In 1885 Leopold took it over as a personal estate. Stanley's advice had been good. Rubber, ivory, and palm oils brought millions to Leopold each year. But this was at the expense of the natives, who worked virtually as slaves under the worst conditions. At length news of the deplorable situation in the Congo reached the outside world. Public opinion was aroused. The king introduced some reforms and then, in 1908, he turned his estate over to the Belgian Parliament in return for a liberal sum of money. In this way Belgium acquired a colony about eighty times the size of the mother country and one that contained great wealth in natural resources. In time, the government established a wild-life sanctuary there.



Ewing Galloway

*North Rhodesia, in Africa, has a rich copper belt, where modern mining and smelting plants are situated.*

## ITALY LOOKS TO AFRICA

Italy became a united nation too late for her to get large colonial possessions. Most of the desirable colonies had been taken over by other powers. There were only a few isolated territories that she could get without encountering objections from other European powers. One of these was Assab. In 1870 Italy bought the port of Assab at the end of the Red Sea and, pushing inland, founded the colony of Eritrea (ĕr ĭ trĕ'ă). A few years later the colony of Somaliland was established to the south on the Indian Ocean. From here Italy attempted to encroach upon the independent kingdom of Abyssinia. She met with a decisive defeat in 1896 and had to withdraw.

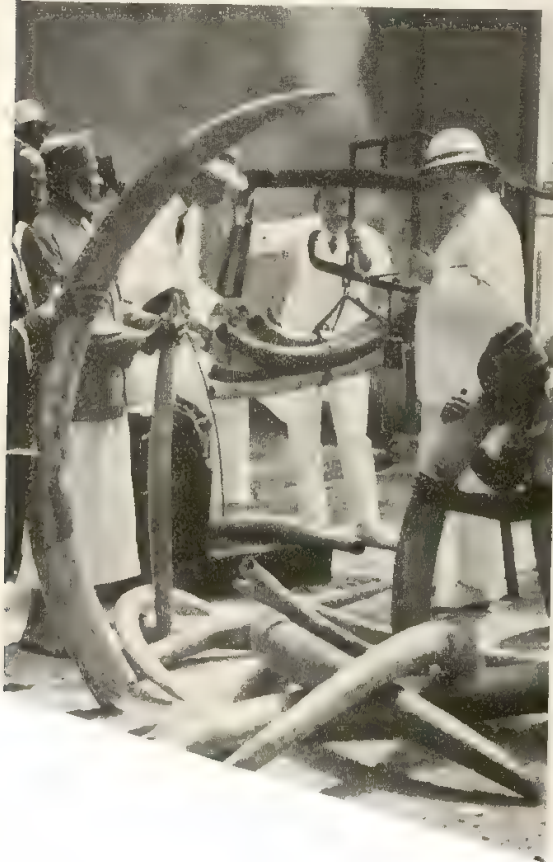


Italy's interests now turned to the Turkish province of Tripoli (trĭp'ō lĭ) in northern Africa on the Mediterranean coast. In 1911 she invaded the province and after a year of fighting drove the Turks out and took over these last African possessions of Turkey. She renamed the territory Libya, the old Roman name for that section. The tribesmen, who were Mohammedans, did not like Italian rule, and the cost of maintaining control there was high.

None of Italy's colonies was profitable to her in commerce or products. Not only were they costly to maintain, but Italians did not go in great numbers to the colonies.

*In Africa, thousands of elephants are killed yearly for their tusks, from which the best ivory comes.*

Underwood & Underwood



1. Who was David Livingstone? Henry Stanley?
2. How did Belgium come into possession of the Congo Region?
3. Why was the Congo such a valuable colony?
4. Why did Italy start so late to acquire colonies?
5. What colonies did she acquire?
6. What were Italy's relations with Abyssinia?
7. From whom did Italy get Libya?

### WILLIAM II DEMANDS A "PLACE IN THE SUN"

Germany was also late in getting into the race for colonies. It had been partly because of Bismarck's lack of a more aggressive colonial policy that William II had dismissed him as chancellor. Bismarck had, however, secured four important colonies for Germany in Africa: Togoland, Kamerun, German Southwest Africa, and German East Africa. These were obtained from the natives between 1884 and 1890. They were costly to Germany in both money and men. They produced rubber, timber, ivory, and palm oils, but not in sufficient quantities to make them a paying venture. Besides, they were in the torrid zone and not suited for German settlement. So they were not an outlet for Germany's growing population.

**Policy of William II** William II was determined to have more colonies. He turned his attention to the Far East. In the Pacific, Bismarck had acquired the Bismarck Islands and the Marshalls. Now William added several small islands and part of the large island of New Guinea. China in the 1890's was weak and was considered by most great powers an easy place to get land and special privileges of commerce. Ger-

many, along with the British, French, Russians, and Japanese, took advantage of the situation.

By 1914 Germany stood fourth among the powers in the colonial area she ruled and sixth in the population of her colonies. Yet the Germans did not migrate in any numbers to her colonies. Neither were the colonies of economic value to Germany. They did appease her national pride and gave her what the Kaiser called a "place in the sun."

1. What colonies did Bismarck get for Germany?
2. What colonies did William II add to his empire?
3. What was the size and population of the German Empire in 1914 as compared to the colonial empires of other great powers?

#### JAPAN TURNS TOWARD THE MAINLAND OF ASIA

While the European powers were amassing empires, Japan did not stand by idle. She, too, turned imperialistic and used the same arguments for expansion that the Western powers had used. Japan's small islands were not large enough to support her large and rapidly growing population and she turned her eyes toward China where she had a good example of imperialism by the Western powers. Japan first recognized the independence of Korea from China, and then meddled in Korean affairs. Korea asked China for help, thus bringing on the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. The weakness of unindustrialized China was soon apparent. In a few months Japan had overrun Korea and parts of Manchuria. Port Arthur was captured, too, and China sued for peace. At the peace conference China promised to pay a large indemnity and to give up all

claim to Korea. The Sino-Japanese War gave Japan the island of Formosa.

Japan soon saw the European powers gaining rights in China. She particularly feared and resented Russia's moves eastward toward Manchuria. This led to an attack upon Russia in 1904. Again the well-trained and patriotic Japanese armies and navy won many victories, but when Japan was nearing the end of her resources, President Theodore Roosevelt offered to act to bring peace between the two countries. Accordingly, at Portsmouth Naval Base, which lies between Maine and New Hampshire, a meeting was held and a treaty signed. Russia and Japan recognized each other's "sphere of influence" in Manchuria, but the Liaotung Peninsula and Port Arthur were turned over to Japan. She also got the southern half of the island of Sakhalin.

1. Why did Japan become imperialistic?
2. What territory did Japan acquire?
3. What were Japan's relations with China during this period? with Russia?

#### THE UNITED STATES GAINS AN OVERSEAS EMPIRE

**Alaska** The first overseas territory that the United States gained was Alaska. As early as 1823, when the Monroe Doctrine was issued, the United States was trying to stop Russian expansion southward from Alaska. A short time afterward, Russia agreed to a treaty whereby she would not move south of the 54-40 parallel. At length Russia came to feel that if Alaska were attacked, it would be impossible for her to defend it. Besides, Alaska had not been profitable to Russia. Consequently, she wanted to sell it. In 1867 the United States

bought it from her for \$7,200,000. Russia was now pushed back into Asia. Alaska was a valuable territory for its furs, gold, fish, and timber. They also learned that southern Alaska has a mild climate suitable for agriculture and herding.



**Hawaii** Alaska was not the only outlying territory in which the United States became interested. As early as 1788 two American ships visited the Hawaiian Islands, and within the next century many American ships came to use the port of Honolulu as a base for trading operations in the northern Pacific. American missionaries went there, too, and established churches and schools. Sugar plantations were established in this rich agricultural region and Americans were given special privileges.

A new queen came to the throne in Hawaii in 1891. She restricted the rights of foreigners, whereupon the Americans living there organized a rebellion and overthrew the queen. Then a republic was set up and a treaty negotiated for the United States to take over the islands. President Grover Cleveland believed that the Americans had overstepped their rights in Hawaii and refused to have the treaty ratified. Later, when William McKinley became President, Con-

gress passed a joint resolution approving annexation. Thus in 1898 the Hawaiian Islands came into United States possession.

**Spanish-American War** About the same time that the United States took control of Hawaii, she went to war with Spain. Cuba had long suffered from misrule by the Spaniards. Riots broke out frequently and armies overran the island, disrupting business and ruining the sugar and tobacco plantations. American citizens owned plantations in Cuba and the unrest seriously interfered with their businesses. Some American newspapers played up the cruel government in Cuba and other Spanish colonies. When the American battleship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana, the war spirit in the United States rose to fever heat. Although the cause of the explosion was never determined, Congress declared war on Spain.

The war was an unequal contest. Spain was weak, badly prepared, and unable to wage a war successfully so far from her shores. Not only did the United States take possession of Cuba, but Admiral Dewey's fleet entered Manila Bay in the Philippine Islands and he took the city.

By the treaty which closed the war the United States received Guam in the western Pacific and Puerto Rico in the West Indies and paid \$20,000,000 for the Philippines. Cuba was given limited independence. The Filipinos did not want American rule any more than they had wanted Spanish rule. It took three years of warfare to quell revolts and restore order there.

In addition to these possessions, the United States occupied some small islands lying between the Hawaiian Islands and the Philippines which would serve as "stepping stones" between the two.





Courtesy Standard Oil Co. (N.J.)

Balboa and Cortez saw the possibility of a canal connecting the two big oceans when they could not find a natural passage. "The Big Ditch," completed 400 years later, is one of the world's greatest engineering feats.

**Panama Canal** Shortly after the gold rush to California in 1849 the United States became aware of the fact that for military protection of its west coast a canal through Panama was desirable. It was not until the early twentieth century that United States Army engineers undertook the task. President Theodore Roosevelt failed in his efforts to make a treaty with Colombia for the land in Panama through which to build it. But a revolution in Panama set up an independent country at the time. The United States took advantage of the revolution, recognized the Republic of Panama, and made a treaty with it permitting the United States to build the canal. The canal was opened to the ships of all nations on the same basis. The canal saved weeks in travel time and greatly reduced the cost of shipping. No longer did vessels from the Atlantic have to sail around South America to get to the Pacific.

After the building of the Panama Canal it seemed important that all approaches to it be guarded. When war with Germany seemed probable in 1917 the United States

bought from Denmark some of the Virgin Islands in the Caribbean Sea, since they lay on one of the routes to the Canal.

Thus the imperialist urge moved both great and small powers for one reason or another. This race for empire led to costly and disastrous wars, while it opened up many of the underdeveloped areas of the world to Western civilization and produced many changes in the lives of both the conqueror and the conquered. The race for empire also led to rivalries between large nations who clashed in a world war in 1914.

1. List all the lands that the United States has acquired outside the country proper.
2. Explain the circumstances under which the United States got Hawaii.
3. Why did the United States want to build a canal through the Isthmus of Panama? How did she get the land there?
4. What were the causes for the war with Spain? What land did the United States acquire as a result of the war?
5. How and why did the United States acquire the Virgin Islands?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why are some countries more successful colonizers than others?

2. Why do small, densely-populated countries like the Netherlands, Japan, Italy, and Belgium feel the need of colonies more than countries like the United States?

3. Are there parts of the world today where the natives are mistreated by the colonizing power? What troubled spots exist in the world as a result of foreign rule of colonies?

4. Does a colonial power have a moral responsibility to see that the natives in its colonies are educated, live under healthy conditions, and learn to govern themselves?

5. Is it always wrong for one country to rule another?

6. Should parts of the mainland of Asia be given to Japan because of her crowded islands?

7. Was the United States right in intervening in Cuba?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

• Boers • "bush" • disestablishment • dominion • Durham Report • Great Trek • Home Rule • imperialism • khedive • Maoris • "place in the sun" • protectorate • Shah • Sinn Fein • "White man's burden" •

2. *Do you know your dates?*

• 1774 • 1801 • 1823 • 1829 • 1837 • 1849 • 1867 • 1894-1895 • 1898 • 1900 • 1904-1905 • 1910 •

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

• Abyssinia • Adowa • Afghanistan • Africa • Alaska • Aleutian Islands • Algiers • Asia Minor • Australia • Assab • Austria • Azores • Balkans • Behring Sea • Bismarck Islands • Botany Bay • Canada • Cape Colony • Caroline Islands • Constantinople • Congo • Cuba •

Damascus • Egypt • Equatorial Africa • Eritrea • French West Africa • German East Africa • German Southwest Africa • Guam • Havana • Hawaii • Honduras • Hongkong • Honolulu • Hungary • India • Indo-China • Ireland • Italy • Korea • Liao-tung Peninsula • Libya • Madeira Islands • Malay Peninsula • Manchuria • Manila • Marshall Islands • Morocco • Natal • New Amsterdam • New Brunswick • New Guinea • New Zealand • Nova Scotia • Ontario • Orange Free State • Pacific Ocean • Panama Canal • Persia • Persian Gulf • Philippines • Poland • Port Arthur • Portugal • Portsmouth, New Hampshire • Puerto Rico • Punjab • Quebec • Rocky Mountains • Russia • Sahara • Sakhalin • Somaliland • St. Lawrence River • Sudan • Suez Canal • Texas • Thirteen Colonies • Togoland • Transvaal • Tripoli • Tunis • Turkey • Union of South Africa •

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

• Otto von Bismarck • Grover Cleveland • James Cook • Oliver Cromwell • Admiral Dewey • Lord Durham • William Gladstone • Arthur Griffith • Dr. L. S. Jameson • Rudyard Kipling • Paul Kruger • Leopold II • Magellan • William McKinley • Napoleon I • Napoleon III • William Pitt • Cecil Rhodes •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Bring a short statement to the class explaining your reaction to each of the following:

- The "Young Turks" probably saved Turkey.
- President Cleveland stated that Americans had overstepped their rights in Hawaii.
- If a nation starts imperialism, it is difficult for it to stop.
- Nationalism is the chief cause of imperialism.
- Britain gave her colonial peoples of European descent more self-government than she gave to others.

# 10 • Milestones Toward Democracy



The British Parliament passed the Reform Bills and the Catholic Emancipation Act and fostered Irish Home Rule and universal suffrage.



In the United States democracy gained under Presidents Jefferson and Jackson. Slavery was abolished in 1863. In France, the Third Republic wrote the Constitution of 1875. There was little democracy



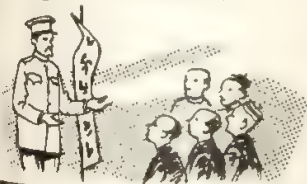
in Germany and Italy. The Balkan countries won independence from despotic rule. The Scandinavian countries, Belgium, and The Netherlands were democratic monarchies. Canada became self-governing, but South Africa, India, Egypt, and Persia remained under British rule.



Millions of Russian serfs were freed in 1861, but other reforms were suppressed by absolute monarchs. Spain and Portugal remained far behind other European countries in political advancement.



Japan was finally forced into contact with the West. Feudalism was abolished and land assigned to the peasants. A strong military group hindered democratic gains.



By 1911, the monarchy of China had been abolished and a republic set up.



f. Australia and New Zealand do not permit people of colored races to settle in their countries.

g. Some colonists say that they would prefer poor government by themselves than good government by another country.

h. The purchase of Alaska was a bargain.

2. Let each student choose one of the possessions of the United States for further reading. Report to the class, showing pictures.

3. Read about the life of one of the native tribes in Africa or the natives of Australia or New Zealand and prepare a floor talk.

## III. Cartoons and Headlines

Prepare newspaper headlines or draw cartoons that might have appeared on each of the occasions listed below. Give the name of the country in which the headline or cartoon might have appeared in the press.

• Japan defeats China in 1895 • Japan

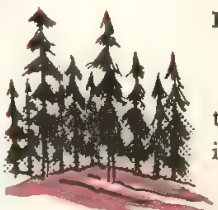


# 10 • Milestones of Living

In spite of the political struggles and wars that accompanied the rise of nations and of autocratic forms of government, many of our modern methods and machines were invented and developed during the nineteenth century.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

Inventions that had come into use since the early days of the Industrial Revolution continued to be improved and new ideas were put to practical uses.

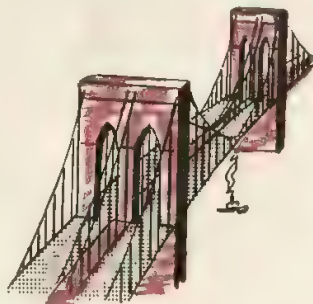


In the United States, following the War between the States, manufacturing began on a large scale. America's vast natural resources were used to provide power for industry, to build factories and produce new products.



Although America was still, during this century, largely an agricultural nation, people began moving to the cities in large numbers, where they secured work in the new industrial plants.

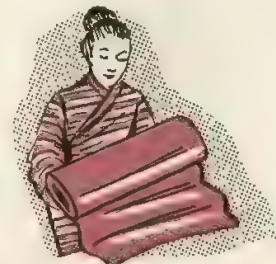
Transportation improved in some areas of Europe, notably in England, Sweden, and France, during this period, and manufacturing increased as new products appeared.



After 1860 came street-cars, bicycles, steel rails and bridges and many other developments important to our present standard of living.



Japan, too, became an industrial country. Here the manufacture of silk was developing into a major industry.



attacks Russia in 1904 • The Boer War comes to an end • Disraeli buys shares in the Suez Canal • The United States buys Alaska • The United States annexes Hawaii •

## IV. Trade and Pictorial Maps

1. Using an economic geography, find out what commodities Britain imports from her colonies and dominions. Make a large map of the British Empire. Using pieces of colored string fasten one end of each piece on England

and the other end at the colony or dominion from which a commodity comes. To each trade line attach a label naming the commodity.

2. Make a pictorial map of Africa showing the chief products that come from each colony. You may paint, draw with crayons, or put cut-out pictures on the map.

## V. Committee Assignment

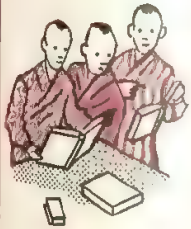
Make a model of a home of a person in the Belgian Congo or in one of the Pacific islands.

## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

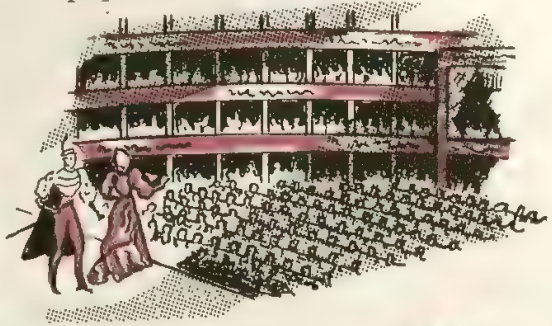
In the late nineteenth century in France, school attendance for children between the ages of six and thirteen became compulsory.



In the United States, largely as a result of the efforts of Horace Mann in Massachusetts, Henry Barnard, Connecticut, Thaddeus Stevens in Pennsylvania, and Mary Lyon, who interested herself in higher education for women, the importance of public schools was brought to the attention of the American people.

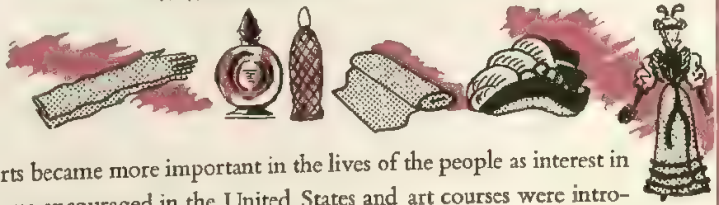


School attendance for children became compulsory in Japan in 1872. After the opening of that country to the West, Japanese students were sent abroad for study.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

Music, painting, and other fine arts became more important in the lives of the people as interest in them grew. The study of the arts was encouraged in the United States and art courses were introduced into the school curriculum. European cities, particularly in Germany and Italy, were the musical centers of the world. Crafts, fashions, and the manufacture of textiles flourished in France.



Show your model to the class and tell them about the materials used for such houses, the furnishings, and the location.

### VI. An Assembly Program

Prepare an assembly program based on the British or some other empire. Here is one suggestion. Let each of ten or twelve pupils, dressed in the costume of a particular colony, give a two or three-minute talk on his homeland. Costumes are easily made by coloring

worn sheets or from inexpensive material. Designs can be made on the costumes with oil crayon.

### VII. A Travel Talk

Read a travel book on the scenery, animals, plant life, and people of one of the colonies or dominions mentioned in this chapter. Take your class on an imaginary "sight-seeing tour" of the country studied, illustrating your talk with pictures, if possible.

## GOOD READING

BAKER, NINA BROWN, *Garibaldi*, Vanguard Press, 1944

A biography that traces the great Italian hero through his early failures and exile to his fame as a leader.

BAKER, NINA BROWN, *Sun Yat Sen*, Vanguard Press, 1946

A fictionized biography of the father of the Chinese Republic. Easy reading.

BEARD, ANNIE E., *Our Foreign-Born Citizens: What They Have Done for America*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1946

Numerous short biographies of immigrants, showing their influence upon the culture of the United States.

BENZ, FRANCIS E., *On to Suez*, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1939

The absorbing story of how DeLesseps won out against great odds in the building of the Suez Canal.

BONNET, THEODORE, *The Mudlark*, Doubleday & Co. Inc., 1949

A novel whose central figure is a little waif from the London wharves in the days of Queen Victoria.

COLLINS, DALE, *Bush Holiday*, Doubleday & Co. Inc., 1949

The story of an American boy visiting on a huge ranch in the Australian bush. A good book of fiction depicting life in Australia.

CRAWFORD, F. S., *Jan Smuts*, Doubleday & Co. Inc., 1943

Written for adults, but students will find it an absorbing biography of one of the modern world's prominent men.

DER LING, PRINCESS, *Old Buddha*, Dodd, Mead & Co., 1928

A lady-in-waiting to the last Chinese Empress writes a biography of the empress. Gives a glimpse into the amazing court life of China before the revolution.

DICKENS, CHARLES: *David Copperfield*.

EATON, JEANETTE, *David Livingstone, Foe of Darkness*, William Morrow & Co., 1947.

The exciting story of thirty years spent in Africa bringing Christianity and the benefits of science to the natives.

EKREM, SELMA, *Turkey, Old and New*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1947

A Turkish woman who knew both the old and new Turkey writes understandingly about her country.

GATTI, ATTILIO, *Adventures in Black and White*, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1943

A novel by an author who knows Africa. Another book by the same author is *Here Is the Veld*, a book of travel describing the people and country of South Africa.

JOHNSON, CHARLES AND SPENCER, *Carita: Ireland's Story*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1943

Comprehensive, well written, and impartial.

KYLE, ANNE D., *Red Sky over Rome*, Houghton Mifflin & Co., 1938

A novel set in the time of Garibaldi and Mazzini in Italy. The main character is an American girl.

MAUROIS, ANDRE, *Disraeli*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1928

A well-written biography of one of England's most colorful figures.

NOLAN, JEANNETTE, *Andrew Jackson*, Julian Messner, Inc., 1949

A good biography of one of America's most forceful Presidents.

RICHARDS, LAURA ELIZABETH, *Florence Nightingale, the Angel of the Crimea*, Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1909

A biography of the woman who dared, against family opposition, to leave her comfortable English home to nurse the men in the Crimean War.

SPENCER, CORNELIA, *Understanding the Japanese*, Aladdin Books, American Book Company, 1949

Traces simply the development of the Japanese nation.

STRACHEY, GILES LYTTON, *Victoria, Queen of Great Britain*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1921

A lively biography of Victoria.

SUGIMOTO, ETSU, MRS., *Daughter of the Samurai*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1925

An autobiography of a Japanese girl of a high class. The author writes charmingly of her school and home life.

WALN, NORA, *House of Exile*, Little, Brown & Co., 1933

A delightful book written by an American woman who went as a girl to live in the home of a Chinese family.

WONG, SU-LING, *Daughter of Confucius*, Farrar, Straus & Young Inc., 1952

The story of a Chinese girl born into a well-to-do family that adjusts itself to social and political changes.

YAUKEY, GRACE, *Made in India*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1946

Gives an interesting glimpse into the culture of India.



*The race for empire led to*



*World War I*

During the quarter of a century between 1914 and 1939 there was a succession of earth-shaking events, a world war, violent political revolutions in several countries, a serious economic depression, and new developments in science that drastically changed and will continue to change the lives of people everywhere. These events so altered the social, political, and economic conditions of most of mankind that you are living today in a very different world from the one that existed before 1914.

The century preceding 1914 had been one of comparative peace. While there were

wars, they were on a small scale; the great powers were not pitted against one another. But these strong nations had been becoming more nationalistic, more imperialistic, and more militaristic, until by 1914 they distrusted and feared each other. In addition, they had new tools and materials with which to wage devastating war.

Some thinking people saw the folly of lack of co-operation between nations and tried to do something about it. There were alliances between certain nations, and congresses and conferences held in the interests of settling disputes. But these did not pre-

**The World in**

**TURMOIL**



vent the outbreak of the most widespread war, known in history as World War I, that mankind had yet known.

World War I brought death and destruction in its wake, and it also sowed seeds of more discord for the future. These seeds developed into violent revolutions and even fiercer militarism and nationalism.

Little had been settled by the war, except for a short time. That war was followed by

such economic disturbances that people in the farthest corners of the world felt them. The period between 1914 and 1939 was one of uncertainty, change, and turmoil.

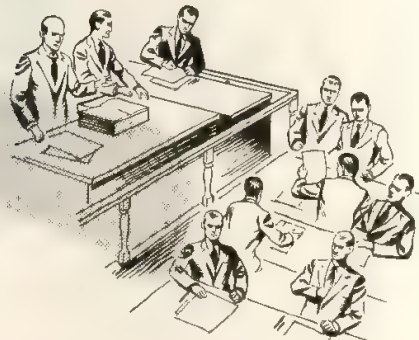
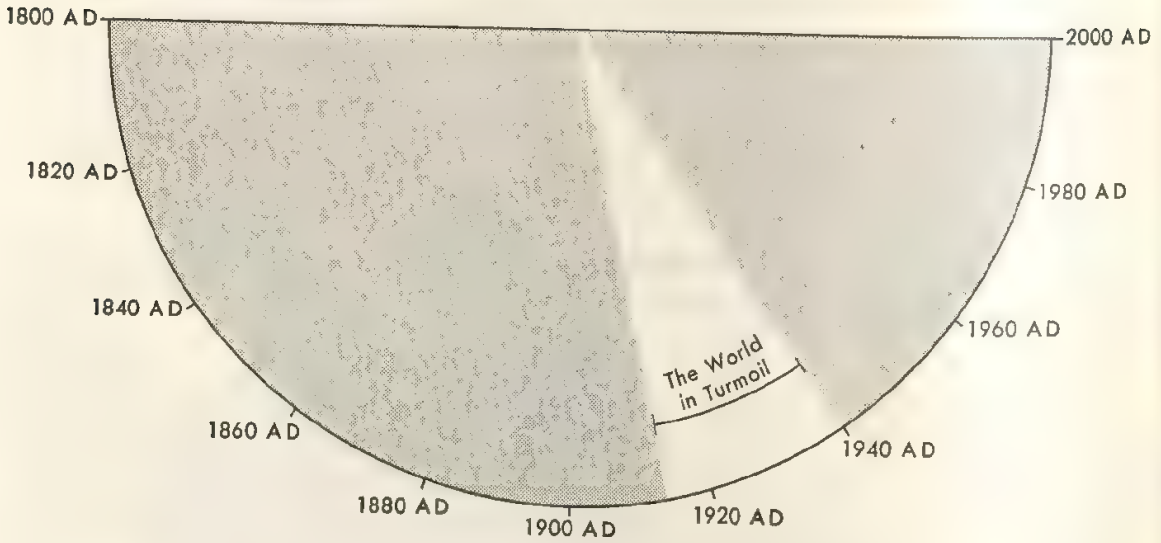
Changes occurred not only in governments, but in man's culture. New inventions and new customs and manners appeared as a result of changes in the lives of people during the war years. These affected the arts, education, and social life.







**+** RED CROSS  
CANTEEN





## Nations Fail in Attempts to Co-operate

Ever since the rise of national states thoughtful people have attempted to bridge the gulf of suspicion and jealousy between these states. For the most part such attempts have not been very successful, for international co-operation is difficult. But while wars have been caused by nationalism, peaceful achievements have also been brought about through co-operation. These attempts at co-operation have taken the following forms.

**Diplomatic Relations** In the sixteenth century, kings sent envoys to the courts of neighboring rulers in order to find out what their neighbors were doing. In practice this led to the diplomatic relations that came to exist between countries. Each country sent an ambassador, or minister, to every other country. These ambassadors kept the home government advised about world affairs and acted as representatives of their country in the country to which they were sent.

**International Law** A second step in the relations between governments came after the bloody Thirty Years' War when Hugo Grotius (grō'shī ūs), a Hollan-

der, wrote the first great textbook on international law. In his work Grotius brought out the idea that there is a law above that of absolute monarchs and states, a moral law, that all should obey, even in war.

International law was very different from national law. It was seldom written down except in treaties. There were no police to enforce it. Yet it has played an important part in world history. Practices were accepted as international law by civilized nations regarding trade between nations, the treatment of prisoners of war, and the conduct of war. These practices were often violated; public opinion was the only force to check the offenders, and public opinion did not always stop them.

**Balance of Power** Another attempt to keep the peace came from what is known as the *balance of power*. We have been hearing about this throughout our study of the European nations. For example, it was the consistent policy of Great Britain to see that no continental nation got so powerful that it could upset the balance of power on the Continent and therefore be a threat to her. Despite her policy, Britain was not always able to maintain this balance.



Bettmann Archive

*An artist illustrates in caricature the collapse of pre-war alliances under the kick of Germany.*

**Alliances** In order to maintain a balance of power, nations have formed alliances to hold in check a powerful nation that might be a threat to their security. For centuries such alliances have been formed from time to time. In the late nineteenth century Germany, Austria, and Italy formed the *Triple Alliance* to combat the power of France and Great Britain. Early in the twentieth century Great Britain, France, and Russia joined in the *Triple Entente* to offset the *Triple Alliance*. These alliances, made to maintain the peace, were actually one cause for the first World War. But there have been other alliances that aided peace.

**Congresses** Beginning with the Congress of Vienna in 1815 a series of conferences or congresses were held from time to time by the European powers to solve problems that otherwise have caused wars. A few of

these will show some of the efforts made at co-operation.

In 1864 a Congress was held at Geneva that resulted in the establishment of the International Red Cross whose work is to care for the wounded in battle no matter on which side they are fighting. In time of disasters like floods and earthquakes the Red Cross renders invaluable services, too.

In 1884-1885 a Congress of powers met at Berlin to lay down rules for the partitioning of Africa. In 1906 a Conference, at Algeiras (ăl jě sēr'ās), Spain, prevented trouble between Germany and France over the African state of Morocco. In the New World a series of Pan-American Conferences beginning in 1889 worked out many difficulties and differences between the republics of the Western Hemisphere. All these conferences encouraged co-operation but they could not be called quickly.

**International Court of Arbitration** In 1899 Tsar Nicholas II of Russia called an International Peace Conference that met at The Hague in the Netherlands. Twenty-six nations sent representatives. They attempted to limit armaments, but little progress was made in that direction. However, an International Court of Arbitration, often called the Hague Tribunal, was established to which nations could bring disputes for settlement. No nation was compelled to bring its cases to the court, but between 1899 and 1914 fifteen international disputes were settled by this body. This was not a court in the true sense; it offered to nations having disputes a list of names from which they could select those who would act as arbiters. Several small wars occurred in the nineteenth century, but none on a large scale between nations.



## THE DEEP-SEATED CAUSES OF WORLD WAR I

Despite the means at the disposal of nations to settle their differences, hatreds and suspicions continued to exist until at length they burst forth into a world-wide conflict. These hatreds and suspicions had been growing ever since the Congress of Vienna.

**Nationalism** First, there was a strong spirit of nationalism. In Europe there were many "submerged" nationalities. You will remember that the Austro-Hungarian Empire was composed of many different national groups that wanted independence. The Russian Empire, too, contained peoples who wanted to rule themselves as national states. Other nations feared and distrusted the ambitions of their neighbors. Such feelings, if not checked, were bound to result in war.

**Imperialism** Another cause for war was imperialism. Rivalries for colonial empires in Asia and Africa had caused bitter jealousies among the nations. The feeling was particularly high in those countries of Europe that had been able to get little or none of the lands with great undeveloped resources.

**Militarism** In the third place, there were armament races. Nearly every Continental country had compulsory military training. England had long been mistress of the seas, but Germany started a naval program that challenged her. So England started to build more ships to keep her navy larger and better than that of Germany, and so a naval race was on. Large armies and navies and good equipment always make it easy to go to war.

fourth place, ...

Triple Alliance and the strengthened the confidence of the aggressors, for they had assurance of help if armed conflict broke out.

**Boundary Disputes** A fifth cause for the First World War was a series of boundary disputes. France could not forget that the Germans had taken Alsace-Lorraine from her. Italy also wanted the region of Trieste (trě's'tà) and Trentino (trě'n tě'nō), where many Italians lived. There were other claims to territory that caused friction between nations.

1. When and why were diplomatic relations between nations started? Explain what is meant by diplomatic relations.
2. Who was Hugo Grotius?
3. How does international law differ from national law?
4. What is meant by "balance of power"?
5. What alliances are mentioned in this chapter? Which countries were in each? What was the purpose of each?
6. What was the purpose of each of the following conferences: Congress at Geneva in 1864, Berlin Congress of 1884-1885, Algeciras Conference of 1906, the Pan-American Conferences, the Conference at The Hague in 1899?
7. Explain the method used by the International Court of Arbitration to settle disputes.
8. Name the chief causes of World War I.

## WORLD WAR I INVOLVES MOST OF THE NATIONS

**How World War I Began** In the Bosnian town of Sarajevo (să'ră yě vò), on June 28, 1914, the heir to the throne of

Austria-Hungary, Archduke Francis Ferdinand, and his wife were murdered. The Bosnian patriot who committed the crime did so as a protest against Austria's domination of his people, the Serbs. Austria claimed that Serbia had aided in the murder plot. She sent an ultimatum to Serbia that had to be accepted within forty-eight hours. The ultimatum, among other things, demanded that Austrian officials help suppress anti-Austrian propaganda in Serbia. This part of the ultimatum Serbia refused to accept, but she offered to submit the case to The Hague Tribunal or to a conference of the important powers. Before sending the ultimatum, Austria had made sure that in event of war her German ally would come to her aid. Russia, as "protector" of the small Slavic states, warned Austria that she would come to Serbia's aid if Serbia were invaded. England, fearing a general conflict, proposed that the quarrel between Austria and Serbia be arbitrated by a conference of Germany, France, Italy, and England. Germany refused, and on July 28, Austria

declared war on Serbia and a terrible conflict was under way.

### How World War I Spread

Events moved quickly. On July 30, Tsar Nicholas II ordered a mobilization of Russian armies. On August 1, Germany declared war on Russia. Two days later Germany declared war on France, the ally of Russia. England's fears had been justified; a general war had begun.

Germany mobilized her armies on the French, Belgian, and Luxembourg borders and sent an ultimatum to Belgium demanding permission to let her armies pass through the country. Since 1839 Belgium had been declared a nation whose neutrality all countries would respect. Therefore Belgium replied that she would defend herself if her neutrality were violated. On August 4, Germany sent her armies across Belgium. This action shocked the world. England protested, fearing a powerful enemy across the English Channel. On the same day, August 4, England declared war on Germany. The German chancellor

*Every war is more deadly than the last, because instruments of warfare grow more and more destructive. The encouraging fact is that the desire for peace likewise grows steadily in wider areas of the world.*



Acme



denounced England for going to war over a "scrap of paper," as he called the treaty his country had signed with Belgium.

Japan, which had a treaty of alliance with England, joined the Allies—the French, English, Russians, and Belgians. Japan easily took over some of Germany's possessions in the Pacific. Montenegro came to the aid of Serbia, while Turkey joined Germany and Austria, known as the Central Powers. Turkey did this because of her old fear of Russia and because she was strongly under the influence of Germany, who had aided her financially. It was not long until nations from every continent were in the war.

### **Advantages and Disadvantages**

As the war opened it was evident that each side had certain advantages. The Allies had much greater manpower upon which to draw, and their wealth was many times that of the Central Powers. The French had a large and well-trained army; the British navy was the undisputed mistress of the seas and from the early days of the war cut Germany off from the rest of the world. There were differences, too, in the cause for which the war was being fought. The Allies were fighting, they thought, for the cause of freedom, whereas Germany had crushed the attempts for freedom at home, and the Austro-Hungarians and Turks had never had a taste of freedom. The Allies feared that a German victory would destroy democracy in the West.

The Central Powers had the advantage of their geographical position, and they also had the use of the excellent railroad system of Germany, which permitted troops and supplies to be shifted quickly from one front to another. Almost from the first the German high command had charge of the

conduct of the war, while the Allies had no unified command until the closing days of the conflict. The Germans believed that they were fighting for their very existence against an "iron ring" that had been forged around them.

### **Conquest of Belgium**

The Germans broke through Belgium despite the heroic stand of the Belgians under their gallant King Albert. They then attacked the French and English with such strength that at one time they drove them to within fifteen miles of Paris. Then the French General Joffre (zhô'fr) brought in a new army and drove back the Germans in the Battle of the Marne. This was one of the great decisive battles of the war, saving Paris and preventing an early German victory.

The success at the Marne was partly due to the valiant stand of the Belgians, who held up the Germans long enough for the French to prepare. The Germans punished Belgium for this by reducing the country almost to the point of starvation. Herbert Hoover supervised the distribution of huge quantities of food from America.

### **Defeat of Russia**

The Russians had played their part in diverting the German forces, too. They had overrun parts of Prussia and Austria-Hungary and the Germans had sent part of their western forces to stop them. The German forces under General Paul von Hindenburg won a decisive victory at Tannenberg in East Prussia and then pushed the Russians back into their own country. The Russians were forced to retreat from Austria-Hungary also, and thus they lost all the ground that they had taken. The Germans, however, had had to lessen the pressure on the West to do this.



**Japan and China** Japan took advantage of the fact that the United States and the European powers were busy in Europe to press China for concessions. Japan's demands upon China would have given her great power over China if they had been carried through. In 1917, under the influence of Japan, China entered the war on the side of the Allies.

**Italy and the Allies** At the beginning of the war, Italy had declared herself neutral because her allies in the Triple Alliance were waging an aggressive war and the terms of their agreement called for her to help only in a defensive war. After receiving Allied promises of territory, in May, 1915, Italy decided to enter the war on the side of the Allies, hoping to get Trentino and Trieste. Her main efforts were directed against the Austrians.

**German Offensive** In February, 1916, the Germans opened an offensive on the western front at Verdun, which was the best fortified section in the six-hundred-mile fortifications of the Allies. The Battle of Verdun dragged on for six months, first one side and then the other gaining a little. The losses in life were appalling. Over one half million men gave their lives in the battle. General Henri Petain's (pā tăn') pledge, "They shall not pass," became a national cry for France. At length the Germans had to withdraw. At the same time the British under General Douglas Haig (hāg) opened an offensive against the Germans along the Somme River. This, too, was indecisive.

By this time most of the Balkan states were involved. Bulgaria, an ancient enemy of Serbia, joined the Central Powers in 1915. In 1916 Rumania joined the Allies.

The next year Greece threw in her lot with the Allies.

**New Instruments of Warfare** In the meantime a new type of warfare had appeared. Parallel trenches were dug, from which the armies fought each other. Advances were made across No Man's Land between the opposing lines. Large guns shooting huge shells fifteen or twenty miles were used. At one time Paris was shelled by German guns seventy miles away. The British introduced the "tank" for the first time in warfare, while the Germans began the use of poison gas and of the airplane for bombing cities.

1. How and when did World War I begin?
2. Explain how each of the following countries became involved in the war: Germany, Russia, Belgium, Great Britain, France, Montenegro, and Turkey.
3. What advantages did the Allies and Central Powers each have over the other in the early days of the war?
4. What was the fate of Russia in the war?
5. Why did Italy enter the war?
6. What other European countries came into the war?
7. What new type of warfare was used?
8. Name two outstanding generals.

#### THE UNITED STATES BECOMES INVOLVED IN THE WAR

In carrying on this deadly war, both the British and the Germans violated the rights of Americans as neutrals. But while the British violations caused the loss of property, the German violations caused the loss of American lives. The British confiscated many articles carried in American ships on their way to Germany or to countries

American "dough-boys" blasted their way through the Argonne Forest and so paved the way for the end of the war.



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bordering on Germany for reshipment to Germany. There were loud protests to Britain against such violations of our rights. Soon, however, the loss of American lives on the high seas at the hands of the Germans made Americans forget the loss of property at the hands of the British.

**Reasons for American Intervention** President Wilson had proclaimed neutrality at the beginning of the war in Europe and urged Americans to be neutral even in thought. But Germany's devastating submarine warfare made this almost impossible, or very difficult. When Germany started her submarine warfare she warned the United States that she would sink without warning neutral as well as enemy ships caught carrying goods to Britain or France. The United States said that this violated international law, according to which persons on board must be taken to safety before a ship was destroyed. When American lives were lost by the sinking of the British passenger ship, the *Lusitania*, on which Americans

were traveling, bitter anti-German sentiment arose in this country. Other sinkings occurred, too.

There were other reasons why the people of the United States favored the Allies. The reported brutal treatment of the Belgians by the Germans was one of them. Then, too, Americans favored the democracies of England and France, rather than the autocratic government of the German Empire. Many Americans, also, had financial interests in an Allied victory, for they had made loans to Britain and France. The Allies used propaganda to win public opinion in this country to their side; at the same time German methods were designed to frighten the American people. Both Germany and Austria sent agents to the United States who committed acts of sabotage in the factories and the ports of the country. It was discovered, too, that Germany was offering Mexico the land we had won from her in the Mexican War if she would declare war on the United States.

Most Americans had wanted to remain neutral and many had favored Germany

when the war started in 1914. Three years later, however, public opinion had so changed that President Wilson asked Congress to declare war. Congress voted for war on April 6, 1917, and General John Pershing was sent to France as the commander of the American Expeditionary Forces.

**Wilson's Fourteen Points** On January 8, 1918, President Wilson outlined in a speech to Congress the famous *Fourteen Points* around which he said that peace could be made. He said, "The program of the world's peace is our program, and that program, the only possible program as we see it, is this:" (1) open treaties among nations, openly arrived at, (2) freedom of the seas, (3) removal of economic barriers, (4) the reduction of armaments, (5) adjusting colonial claims in the interest of the natives, (6) the withdrawal of foreign troops from Russian soil, (7) the establishment of an independent Poland, (8) the restoration of Belgium, (9) the returning of Alsace-Lorraine to France, (10) the right of Turkey's subject nationalities to be free, (11) the right of the subject peoples of the Austro-Hungarian Empire to be free, (12) the withdrawal of troops from Rumania, Montenegro, and Serbia, (13) the changing of Italy's boundaries to conform to nationality, and (14) the establishment of an association of nations to keep the peace.

**German Successes** Despite the peace terms that the Allies might accept as stated by President Wilson in his Fourteen Points, it seemed at the beginning of 1918 that the real terms might be dictated by Germany. She had defeated Russia, and in March, 1918, Russia gave up Poland,

Lithuania (lith ū ā'ni ā), Estonia, Finland, and the Ukraine. This was a harsh treaty and made many Germans and Allies feel that the Germans were near victory, for this left their armies free to concentrate on the Western Front. But the Allies increased their efforts to be ready to meet the new offensive. In 1916 Lloyd George had become prime minister of England and France had chosen Georges Clemenceau premier in November, 1917. These two leaders inspired their people to greater effort and enthusiasm for their cause. In the meantime, General Pershing cabled President Wilson that troops from the United States were urgently needed at once. As a result, the United States hastened its shipment of soldiers to join in the battle. The landing of some American soldiers in France brought about renewed spirit and hope for the Allied cause.



On November 11, 1918, at 5 A.M., the armistice was signed in General Foch's railway carriage.

**Final Victory** The Germans, in March, 1918, started a new offensive, which they expected would give the final blow to the Allies before the American troops could be brought over in great numbers. The Allies, realizing the danger in which they found themselves, decided to



appoint one person to command all their troops. For this position they chose Ferdinand Foch (fôsh), who became the commander in chief of the Allied armies. A counterattack hurled the Germans back to the battle line established in 1917. In this offensive the Americans played a conspicuous part. General Pershing made a surprise attack at Saint Mihiel (săn mē yě'), which was a great success.

The victories of the Allies weakened the confidence of Germany's allies in her ability to win the war. One by one they asked for peace terms. Bulgaria, Turkey, and Austria-Hungary surrendered.

In October, 1918, the German line was broken in several places. The morale of the Germans crumbled when the fighting reached the border of the fatherland, and the fairness of Wilson's Fourteen Points made both the soldiers in the battle lines and the people at home believe that it was foolish to continue the war. A revolt spread in Germany, and Kaiser William II was advised to flee to Holland. He was the last of the Hohenzollerns, the once powerful family of Europe. On November 11 an armistice was signed which stripped Germany of the power necessary to resume the war. The largest and most costly war

thus far fought in human history had ended with the defeat of Germany and her allies. But it let loose a storm of hatred, revolution, and unrest that has beset the world ever since.

1. State the reasons why the United States entered World War I.
2. Who commanded the American expeditionary forces?
3. Why did President Wilson issue his Fourteen Points? What were they?
4. What territory did Russia lose to Germany after Russia's defeat in 1918?
5. Who were Lloyd George, Georges Clemenceau, and Ferdinand Foch?
6. Why did Germany's allies sue for peace?
7. Why did Germany sue for peace?

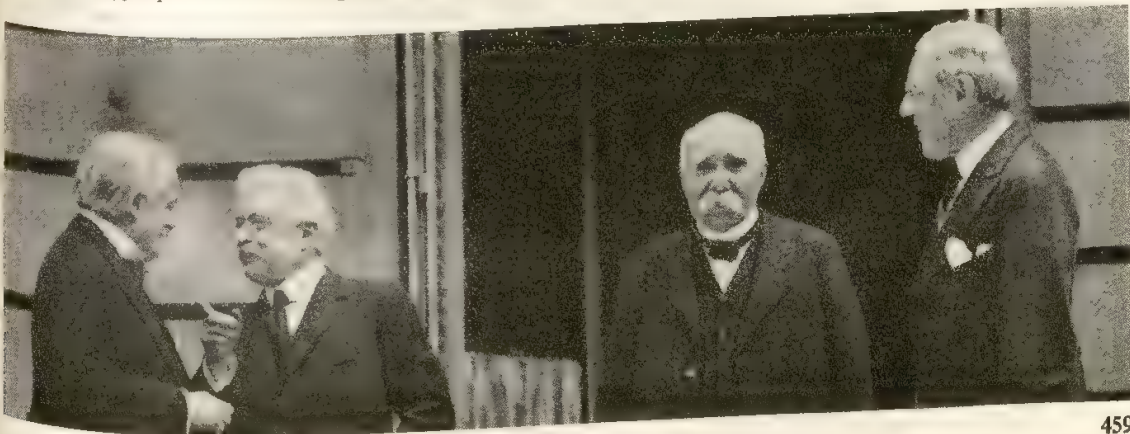
#### THE PEACE OF PARIS

The treaties with the defeated Central Powers were drawn up and signed in or near Paris. The one that concerned most of the people of the world was the treaty with Germany, the Treaty of Versailles.

**The "Big Four"** Thirty-two nations that had fought Germany sent representatives to Versailles. The work was done by committees of specialists who worked in secret and then passed their

*Lloyd George of Britain, Orlando of Italy, Clemenceau of France, and President Wilson of the United States, whether or not they fully realized it, had a good deal to say about the future of your generation.*

Brown Brothers



## EUROPE BEFORE AND AFTER WORLD WAR I



*The Versailles Treaty, like the Congress of Vienna, remade the map of Europe, although along more liberal lines. What new countries came into existence? What has happened to many of them since?*

decisions on to the "Big Four" for approval. The "Big Four" were Woodrow Wilson, President of the United States, and three prime ministers, Lloyd George of Great Britain, Georges Clemenceau of France, and Vittorio Orlando of Italy. It was they who finally decided upon the draft of the Treaty of Versailles.

**Terms of the Treaty** The treaty was finally completed and accepted by all the Allied representatives on May 6, 1919. The following day the German representatives were shown the treaty. They protested its harshness, but finally signed. No one doubted that the treaty was harsh. Some thought it too much so, but others in Allied countries believed that a harsh treaty was necessary to teach the Germans and

their leaders that war did not pay.

Under the terms of the treaty Germany lost all her colonies. Alsace-Lorraine was returned to France. Germany's army was reduced to 100,000 and her navy to a point where it would not be capable of attacking other nations. The land along the Rhine was to be demilitarized, that is, all forts and weapons taken out of the territory. The treaty laid on Germany the blame for starting the war and she was to pay reparations for the damage she had done. The exact amount would be determined later. Until the reparations were paid in full, the Allied armies were to occupy the left bank of the Rhine. This treaty, the Allies hoped, would render Germany incapable of waging war against her neighbors for generations to come.

**Austria-Hungary** Austria-Hungary was also dismembered by a treaty signed at the close of the war. Austria was reduced to a small state around the old city of Vienna, without an outlet to the sea. Hungary was made a separate country, while other parts of the empire were given independence. The empire that had dominated Europe under Metternich a century before was now a small country scarcely able to maintain itself with its meager resources.

## THE ALLIES ESTABLISH THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS

In the Treaty of Versailles was the Covenant, or constitution, of the League of Nations. During the war many thoughtful leaders in the Allied countries, appalled by the great cost in life and wealth of modern warfare, began making plans to prevent another such catastrophe. Organizations to foster these ideas sprang up in France, Great Britain, and the United States. Governments, feeling the pressure from such groups, began studying the idea. President Wilson believed strongly in an association of nations through which international problems could be resolved. In this he proved to be farseeing.

### United States Not a Member

President Wilson pointed out that Article X was the heart of the Covenant. This Article obligated members "to respect and preserve as against external aggression the territorial integrity and existing political independence" of other members. Many Americans believed that this would involve the United States in European wars, hence they opposed American membership in the League. Party politics entered into the question, too, for it was election

time. The President offended the Senate by not appointing any senator to accompany him to the Versailles Conference. As a result of these factors, the Senate of the United States refused to approve the Treaty and our country did not become a member of the League. In 1921 the United States made a separate peace treaty with Germany and the League was not a part of it.

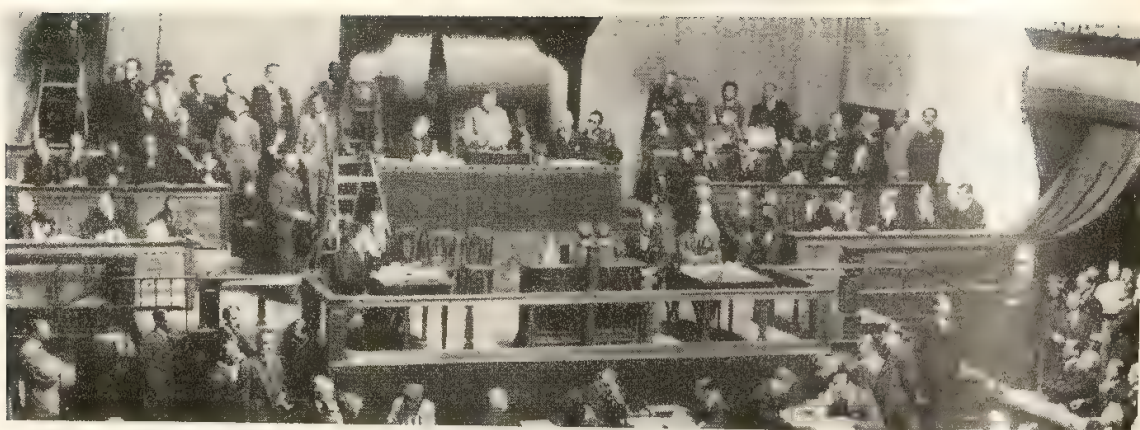
### The League of Nations

Despite the failure of the United States to join it, the League of Nations was formed. The Covenant provided for its organization and operation. In 1920 there were twenty-nine members, but others joined later. Sixty-two nations were members of the League at one time or another. Under the Covenant of the League, members promised to submit quarrels either to arbitration or to investigation by the Council, and they were not to go to war for three months after the verdict was given. If states violated their pledge and did go to war, they could be suspended from the League. Trade with such a nation was to be stopped and the Council could recommend military steps against it by the other members. The League was able to settle a number of disputes that might have led to war, but it failed to settle questions that arose between powerful nations.

### Mandates

One of the knotty problems of the conference at Versailles was what to do with the colonies of Germany and the lands taken from Turkey. At length a *mandate* system was set up. Under this plan one nation is granted responsibility for governing a colonial territory, or mandate. The mandates were eventually to be self-governing. The countries governing mandated territories were responsi-





Underwood & Underwood

*It has been said that Woodrow Wilson was the spokesman of men of good will. But countries which had for centuries been enemies found it difficult to trust one another around a conference table after World War I.*

ble to the League of Nations and had to make reports on the progress of their charges. According to the plan, Germany's African possessions were divided among France, Great Britain, Belgium, and the Union of South Africa to administer. Her Pacific possessions north of the equator went to Japan, and those south of the equator to two nations, Australia and New Zealand. Turkey's former empire was broken up. Palestine, Trans-Jordan, and Iraq were given to Britain, and Syria was given to France to administer. Not long afterward, the British mandates of Iraq and Trans-Jordan were given independence.

**World Court** Article XIV of the League Covenant provided for a permanent Court of International Justice. In 1922 such a court, popularly called the World Court, was established at The Hague. It consisted of fifteen judges chosen by the Council and Assembly of the League jointly for a term of nine years. They could be chosen from any country whether it was a member of the court or not. Four Americans at different times served as judges. Fifty-five nations became members, but the United States refused to

join. The spirit of isolation was too strong in America for that. In the first ten years of its existence the court settled sixteen cases and gave several other opinions.

### **Agencies Connected with the League**

Besides the regular machinery of the League and the World Court, there were agencies to aid the helpless and oppressed of all nations. First, there was the International Labor Organization, with headquarters at Geneva. It collected and distributed information on the conditions of laborers throughout the world. Out of its work came certain recommendations: (1) the right to have labor organizations, (2) an eight-hour day, (3) a living wage for workers, (4) no child labor, and (5) one day of rest each week, and others. Most of these have not been carried out in many parts of the world.

An international health commission inspected ports and established quarantine centers to prevent the spread of disease. A committee investigated reports of slavery in some parts of the world. Another attempted to prevent the unlawful sale of opium and other harmful drugs. Another committee cared for refugees fleeing from



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King George V of England, in the English House of Lords, opened the Naval Disarmament Conference of the five powers: Great Britain, United States, Japan, France, and Italy. So man continued to seek for world peace.

oppression in certain countries of Europe. In all these matters the League worked to help the downtrodden peoples of the world.

1. Who were the "Big Four" at the Versailles Conference?
2. What were the chief terms of the Treaty of Versailles?
3. What is a mandate?
4. What did the treaties with Turkey and Austria-Hungary do to those countries?
5. The Covenant of the League of Nations is a part of what document?
6. Why did the United States not sign the Treaty of Versailles?
7. Compare the aims of the League of Nations with the race for empire of earlier centuries.
8. What means did the Covenant provide for preventing war?
9. Why did the United States not become a member of the League?
10. What was the World Court? Why did the United States not belong?
11. What agencies were set up to care for the welfare of mankind?
12. What were some of the recommendations of the International Labor Organization?

## OTHER ATTEMPTS TO PREVENT WARS

**Locarno Pacts** In 1925 a series of agreements, known as the Locarno Pacts, were reached by the statesmen of Europe to further secure permanent peace in Europe. The countries signing these pacts agreed to keep the existing boundaries between Germany, France, and Belgium. Germany was to become a member of the League and be given a seat on the Council.

**Disarmament Conferences** Because it seemed that another race in naval armaments was about to begin, the Secretary of State of the United States, Charles Evans Hughes, called a naval disarmament Conference in Washington in 1921. The League had no part in this conference, where nine countries were represented. The conference agreed to outlaw poison gas and the use of submarines against merchant vessels. They also agreed to respect the territorial integrity of China and the open-door policy of China.

Five of the nations represented entered into the Five-Power Pact agreeing to limit the tonnage of large battleships among



themselves. The United States, Great Britain, Japan, France, and Italy were to keep the battleships of their navies at a ratio of 5:5:3:1.67:1.67. This ratio was to be kept for a period of ten years, during which time no more large ships would be built. At this conference also a Four-Power Pact was signed by Great Britain, France, Japan, and the United States to respect each other's possessions in the Pacific Ocean area.

Before the ten-year period was up, the five powers signing the naval limitations pact met in London in 1930 to renew it. France and Italy could not agree, however, and so Britain, the United States, and Japan renewed the ratio for another five years with some slight changes. Before the five years were up Japan declared her intention of ending the pact at its expiration in 1936. Thus the attempt to limit naval armaments failed.

**Pact of Paris** In 1928 Aristide Briand (arēs tēd' brē än), Premier of France, approached Secretary of State Frank B. Kellogg with a proposal that France and the United States outlaw war as a means of settling their problems. After some discussion it was agreed to make this proposal general and to ask all countries to sign it. This Pact of Paris was signed by most countries of the world, but all countries reserved the right to fight in self-defense.

**War Debts** One of the problems of the period following World War I was the settlement of international debts. The Reparations Commission set up at Versailles put Germany's reparations for damage done by her at about thirty-two billion dollars. Besides the reparations to be paid by Germany there were inter-

Allied debts. Great Britain had made large loans to her several allies during the first three years of war. The United States lent over eleven billions of dollars to Great Britain, France, Belgium, and other countries during the last years of the war and the period immediately following the armistice. Machinery was set up for the collection of the German debt and the United States arranged to have the interest on the debt based on the ability of a nation to pay.

The Germans first claimed that they could not pay the large annual sums exacted. Then after a few years Germany declared that she was unable to meet her obligations at all under the plan. The Allies claimed that if Germany did not pay them they could not pay the United States, and so one by one they defaulted on their payments. This failure to repay the United States caused a long and bitter controversy, and in the end, the United States was unable to collect the large amount due her. Only Finland lived up to her obligations.

Even with the League of Nations, the World Court, the Locarno Pacts, and attempts to reduce armaments and settle the debt problems, conditions grew worse instead of better. Suspicion and jealousies increased in the world. Every democratic nation wanted peace but feared attack.

1. What were the Locarno Pacts?
2. Who called the Washington Disarmament Conference?
3. To what did the nine countries at the Washington Conference agree?
4. What was the Five-Power Pact? What was the later history of that agreement?
5. What was the Four-Power Pact?
6. What country continued to make its payments to the United States?
7. What was the Pact of Paris?



1. Why did all the attempts to keep the peace prove futile when great powers were ready and willing to fight?
2. Were the British right in coming to the aid of the Belgians? Give your reasons.
3. Why has an upset in the balance of power on the continent of Europe always been of great concern to Great Britain, although she is an island?
4. Why did the German Chancellor's remark calling a treaty a "scrap of paper" shock the world?
5. Are there any "submerged" nationalities today?
6. How many of Wilson's Fourteen Points are in force today?
7. Do you believe that the United States had good reasons for becoming involved in World War I? If so, what were they?
8. In your opinion were the provisions of the treaty with Germany too harsh?
9. If the mandate system had worked out as planned, would it have been an improvement over the old way of dividing among the victors the colonies as spoils of war? Give your reasons. Why did the mandate system not work out successfully?
10. Although the League of Nations failed and went out of existence, of what value was it in world history?
11. Do you believe the United States should have joined the League or the World Court? Why or why not?
12. Can you determine why the ratio for large battleships established at the naval conference was considered a just one?
13. Should an aggressor country be made to pay reparations after its defeat? Why or why not?
14. Was the United States right in expecting the European nations to pay back what they had borrowed from her?

## I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

• Allies • Article X • balance of power • Big Four • Central Powers • covenant • demilitarize • Four Power Pact • Fourteen Points • Hague Tribunal • I.L.O. • Inter-Allied debts • Locarno Pacts • mandates • no man's land • submerged nationalities • World Court • reparations • Triple Alliance • Triple Entente • ultimatum •



*The Peace Palace in The Hague was donated by Andrew Carnegie in the interests of promoting world peace.*

2. Do you know your dates?

• 1864 • 1899 • 1914-18 • 1919 • April 6, 1917 • November 11, 1918 • 1921-1922 • 1925 • 1928 • 1930 •

3. Places to locate on the map:

• Algeciras • Alsace-Lorraine • Berlin • Bosnia • Bulgaria • English Channel • Estonia • Finland • Geneva • Greece • Holland • Iraq • Italy • Japan • Left bank of the Rhine • Austro-Hungarian Empire • Battle of the Marne • Lithuania • Luxembourg • Memel • Mexico • Montenegro • Morocco • New Zealand • Palestine • Paris • Poland • Prussia • Rumania • Saint-Mihiel • Belgium •

Berlin • Sarajevo • Serbia • Sweden • Syria • The Hague • Trans-Jordan • Trentino • Trieste • Turkey • Ukraine • Union of South Africa • Versailles • Vienna • Vilna • Yugoslavia •

**4. Can you identify these persons?**

• Albert • Aristide Briand • Georges Clemenceau • Ferdinand Foch • Lloyd George • Hugo Grotius • Charles Evans Hughes • Frank B. Kellogg • Nicholas II • Vittorio Orlando • John Pershing • Henri Petain • Paul von Hindenburg • William II • Woodrow Wilson •

**II. Can You Express Yourself Well?**

**I. Newspaper Headlines**

What would you have prepared for headlines for your local newspaper on the morning following each of these events?

- a. The defeat of the League of Nations in the United States Senate
- b. The withdrawal of Japan from the naval limitations agreement
- c. The issuing of the Pact of Paris by France and the United States
- d. The establishment of the I.L.O.

Compare your headlines and select the best.

**2. Class Debates**

Hold informal discussions on some of the following remarks:

- a. An English scientist and author said that the real conquerors of the world are not generals but thinkers.
- b. Former President Franklin D. Roosevelt said that if the people could express themselves directly upon the matter of war, there would be no wars.
- c. The ancient philosopher of China, Confucius, said that the nature of man is generally the same; it is only their habits that divide them.
- d. The seventeenth century poet, John Milton, said that peace has her victories that are no less than those of war.

**3. An Editorial**

Write a brief editorial of not more than a hundred words that might have appeared in an American newspaper upon the occasion of one of the following events. Take any side you choose, for or against.

- a. When the Triple Alliance was formed.
- b. When the International Court of Arbitration was established.
- c. When the heir to the Austrian throne was murdered.
- d. When Belgium was overrun by the Germans.
- e. When Britain declared war upon Germany.
- f. When the United States entered the war.
- g. When President Wilson issued his Fourteen Points.
- h. When peace was declared.
- i. When the United States refused to join the League of Nations.

**III. At the Blackboard**

- a. Write in parallel columns a comparison of the Congress of Vienna and the Conference at Paris as to each of the following: type of men present, the attitude of the conference toward the question of nationalism, the provisions made for future peace.
- b. Make a list of all the nations of the world that joined the League of Nations and another list of those that joined the World Court.

**IV. Outside Research**

**1.** A student interested in the diplomatic service as a life's work may find out the educational requirements and personal requirements for such a career. Your guidance director or teacher can help you. Report to the class what you find.

**2.** Construct a bar graph showing the casualties, killed and wounded, in World War I in the following countries: Russia, Germany, France, British Empire, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and the United States. The *World Almanac* will give the necessary information.



## 37 Autocracy Arises under a New Name

**T**he slogan of the United States on entering the First World War had been "Make the world safe for democracy."

The years following the war, however, saw autocratic governments, and not democracies, arise in many of the leading countries of the world. In some of these countries democracy had never been known or tried. In others it was tried but failed for lack of proper leadership. In different countries these new autocratic governments took on different forms, but they were all called by the ancient name, *dictatorship*. In one country there was a communistic dictatorship, in another a fascist dictatorship, and in still another a Nazi dictatorship. All were the same in that they were governments under the rule of one man or a small group of men and the masses had little to say about their own lives. In other respects they differed. Let us look at Soviet Russia first.

their enthusiasm soon changed when disaster and defeat came. Although Russia's army was the largest one in the war, it was very inefficient and its soldiers pitifully equipped. The Tsar, however, refused to listen to criticisms of its inefficiency. The discontent grew with the list of war casualties and hunger at home until, in 1917, a revolution occurred that the Tsar, Nicholas II, could not survive. He abdicated on March 15, 1917. And that was the end of the Romanovs.

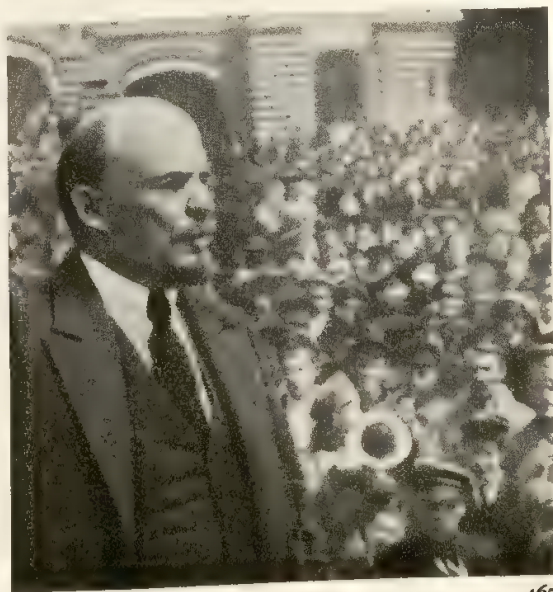
The liberal government that was then set up was not strong enough nor radical

*For nearly seven years, Lenin was the chief leader of Communist Russia. He was head of the party and dictator of Russia.*

*Sovfoto*

### THE BOLSHEVIK, OR RED, REVOLUTION

Although there had been discontent in Russia on the part of many of the people, when the First World War broke out in 1914, all groups in Russia, except the revolutionary Bolshevik (bōl'shē vik) party, supported Russia's war effort. But





enough to get the support of the dissatisfied workers, and a second revolution occurred in November, 1917. This brought into power Nicolas Lenin (lĕn'in), the leader of the Bolsheviki, whom he called *Communists* and the party the Communist party. He and several of his supporters had been in exile but returned to Russia after the March Revolution. Among his supporters was Leon Trotsky, who organized the Bolshevik, or Red, Army. Only a small part of the Russian people were of his party, but the party was well organized, well disciplined, and knew what they wanted and how to get it. Those who resisted the plans and methods of the new government were subjected to severe punishments. Thousands lost their lives and many fled from the country.

The Communist government had its hands full at home and did not attempt to regain the territory that Russia had lost as a result of the treaty with Germany in 1917. After the defeat of Germany in 1918, Finland, Esthonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and Poland became independent republics.

### **Attempts to Establish Communism in Russia**

Lenin set about to carry out his revolutionary economic theories. The peasants were told to take over the farms of the landlords; the factory workers, or proletariat (prō lĕ tâ'rĭ ät), were advised to drive out the owners of the factories and run the factories themselves. Both groups made failures of their attempts. Consequently, the production of the farms fell off to about half the normal amount and industry came almost to a standstill. The government took over the banks, the means of transportation and communication, and the mines.

These changes caused confusion. Thou-

sands of people migrated from place to place seeking better conditions. To make matters worse, a drought in 1921 further reduced the crop output. It is estimated that between two and three million persons died of malnutrition and starvation, while many more suffered greatly. Peasants and workers alike were dissatisfied. Communism proved to be far different from what it was claimed to be.

**New Economic Policy** Lenin and his advisers, the Council of Commissars, fearing that they would lose control of Russia, proclaimed a New Economic Policy in 1921, popularly known as N.E.P. Under this plan small businesses were returned to private owners and the farmers were permitted to rent or own land, raise their crops, and sell them where they wished. The government kept control of all the mines, banks, and means of communication and transportation in Russia. On the other hand, foreigners were invited to come to Russia to invest their money, and persons with technical skill were asked to come to help develop factories, mines, dams, and electrical energy. This system was a combination of communism and free enterprise. The result of N.E.P. was an increase in production by both agriculture and industry.

**Government** The governing unit in Russia was the local *soviet*, which in Russian means committee. These sprang up all over the country at the time of the Revolution in order to run local affairs. They were in factories, mines, colleges, peasant villages, and even in the army. Members of a local soviet elected delegates to a district soviet, who in turn elected delegates to a provincial soviet. The pro-

vincial soviet elected the members to the All-Russian Congress of Soviets. A small group of the people in this congress, who were also the leaders of the Communist party, made the final decisions in all matters of policy. The Politbureau was a small group of Communist leaders at the head of the party. Under such a system it was easy for the Politbureau to control the entire country.

1. What was the effect of the First World War upon Russia?
2. Who was Nicholas Lenin?
3. What was the immediate effect of the Revolution of November, 1917, upon the peasants? the proletariat?
4. What industries did the government nationalize in the days following the Revolution of 1917?
5. What effect did the attempt to establish communism in Russia immediately following the Revolution have upon the economy of Russia?
6. What was the N.E.P.?
7. How was the Russian government organized?

## STALIN CARRIES ON THE REVOLUTION

Upon the death of Lenin in 1924, Joseph Stalin and Leon Trotsky, both prominent members of the Communist party, disagreed as to the ideas and methods to be followed. Trotsky was banished from the Communist party and later from the country. Trotsky had wanted to *liquidate*, that is, get rid of by one means or another, all the kulaks (koo'läk), or wealthy peasants, in Russia and to spread communism by world revolution. Stalin thought the time had not yet come to liquidate the kulaks;

he preferred to make communism work in Russia first. He won the support of his party and in 1927 became the dictator of Russia.

**The Five-Year Plans** The N.E.P. had helped revive the business life of Russia, but the Communist leaders did not want to let private businesses grow in Russia in competition with the state-owned businesses. Therefore Stalin inaugurated a "five-year plan" in 1928. One aim of this first five-year plan was to encourage the building up of Russia's government-owned heavy industries, railroads, waterpower, dams, plants to generate electricity, and plants to make farm machinery. A second aim was to collectivize all the farms of Russia and thus get rid of the kulaks who Stalin thought were no longer needed.

Collective farms were worked by the peasants with government-owned machinery and animals. The income was divided among the workers according to the size of the land they had contributed to the collective and the labor they had performed.

One characteristic of the five-year plan was the complete suppression of all criticism of the Soviet government and its policies. All sources of information were strictly censored, including of course the press. The Russian people heard and read only what Stalin and his fellow leaders wanted them to know. News of the democratic, capitalistic countries was false or misleading, and always made to seem unfavorable. Whatever benefits may have resulted to the Russian people, the price paid was too high.

Stalin's police were everywhere. They were feared and avoided if possible.

Near the close of the five years, Stalin announced that the plan had been a great success. Whether that was true or not the

rest of the world did not know, but Stalin announced a second and then a third five-year plan to strengthen Russia's economic power. The third five-year plan was interrupted by the Second World War before it achieved much.

**Constitution of 1936** In 1936 a new constitution was given to the Russian people. It made several changes in the system of government. The secret ballot was introduced to Russia, and all persons, both men and women, over eighteen years old were permitted to vote. This constitution also permitted people to have private property, although no one could use his property to make money. The state recognized the rights of citizens to inherit property and to receive wages for work. The constitution recognized the right of all citizens to a job, to leisure time, and to a free education. It recognized freedom of religion, but also freedom for anti-religious propaganda.

These provisions looked very good on paper, but that was not the whole story. All adults voted, to be sure, but there was usually only one candidate running for an office, and he was nominated in almost all cases by the Communist party. Nearly all persons worked for the state; there were very few privately-owned businesses. There was no freedom to criticise the policies of the government. While there was freedom of religion, so-called, members of the Communist party were not members of churches and they were actively opposed to religion. Churches were not permitted to conduct schools, do social work, or maintain hospitals. In other words, the personal liberties we in America cherish did not exist in Russia. The Russian people did not have them under the tsars, and they did not have them under Communist rule.

**Foreign Relations** Russia is an immense country. Her 180,000,000 people were by no means crowded. She had great untapped resources so that the Soviets did not look abroad for either living space or many raw materials. Russia did trade with other countries, and she joined the League of Nations. Peace seemed important for her to develop her resources and get her new system working. Through Communist organizations in other countries and the Third International, propaganda was spread to convert the world to communism without military attack. The Third International was an international organization to which the Communist organizations of the various countries belonged and from which they took their orders. The Third International was itself governed from Moscow.

1. How did the ideas of government of Trotsky and Stalin differ?
2. Why was Trotsky banished from Russia?
3. What was the "first five-year plan"?
4. Show how the Constitution of 1936 failed to give the people real liberties.
5. Why did it seem in the 1920's and 1930's that Russia did not want war?
6. What was the Third International?

#### MUSSOLINI ORGANIZES FASCISM IN ITALY

After the First World War, Italy was bankrupt. Her people were bitter because at the Paris Peace Conference they did not get as much territory as they thought they should from Austria-Hungary. Italy had lost 650,000 men in the war and another million were wounded. Thousands of soldiers were returning home to find no jobs awaiting them. There was widespread poverty and the government was not able to



solve its economic problems. Even before the war there were many Socialist and Communist groups in Italy, and now dissatisfied soldiers joined those groups. Strikes, riots, and sabotage were common and the weak Italian Parliament seemed unable to control them.

**Benito Mussolini** It was under these circumstances that Benito Mussolini (mōō sō lē'nē) gained power in Italy. He was the son of a village blacksmith, but a driving ambition and a helpful and devoted mother interested him in teaching and he went to the university to study. He soon joined the Socialists and became the publisher of a Socialist newspaper. Because of his theories, he had to flee from Italy. He went to Switzerland where he lived as an exile. At first he opposed Italy's entrance into the World War, but he changed his opinion and served as a private in the army for two years until he was honorably discharged.

After the war Mussolini denounced socialism and communism and started the Fascist (făsh'ist) party. The Fascists were strongly nationalistic and anticommunistic. Mussolini denounced the disorder at home. He also criticized the weakness of the Italian government at the Peace Conference, where Italy did not get control of the eastern Adriatic Sea coast as she had planned. Mussolini's policies won many followers for him among the younger generation, who felt that Italy had spent herself for nothing in the war. Business men who had lost money because of the disorder in Italy also joined the Fascists. Mussolini formed an organization called the "blackshirts." They were drilled in military tactics and were soon able to stage a march on Rome. As they neared the city, the weak king,

Victor Emmanuel III, in order to avoid trouble, invited Mussolini to form a ministry and serve as prime minister. This was in October, 1922.

### Head of the Government

Mussolini accepted the offer and at once certain elements in the Italian Parliament voted him dictatorial powers for a year. He started immediately to reorganize the government. He put all government offices into the hands of the Fascists and made himself responsible to the king only. Parliament was deprived of its right to make laws; instead Mussolini issued decrees which had the force of law. His title was changed from prime minister to *Head of the Government*, Il Duce (dōō'chá), and all ministers were appointed by him. The whole government was thus changed to give Mussolini complete control over it.

All opposition was dealt with quickly and cruelly. All political parties, except the Fascist, were abolished. No secret societies were permitted in Italy and all newspapers were strictly censored. If papers continued to criticize the government, they were forced out of business. By these measures all opposition to the government's policies was abolished.

### Concordat with the Pope

Mussolini felt that the Pope's approval was necessary in order to get popular backing for his government, because most of the Italians were Roman Catholics. Accordingly, in 1929 he signed a *concordat* with the Pope, settling what had been one of the outstanding problems of the Italian government since 1870. This concordat set up the Papal State of Vatican City, comprising less than one square mile, with a population of five hundred. Here the Pope again had

temporal power. In addition, Italy was to have the Roman Catholic faith as the only state religion. Religious instruction was to be given in the schools. This agreement was welcomed by many people both within and without Italy, and Mussolini gained prestige by it.

**Militarism** Militarism was part of the faith of Fascism. Many of the unemployed were absorbed into the growing army. The boys and young men were trained for war. Boys as young as six had to join youth organizations that trained them to march and to follow *Il Duce*. The schools were reorganized and the curriculum was changed to include a great amount of physical instruction.

**Loss of Personal Liberties** Mussolini brought some reforms to Italy, mostly of the spectacular variety, as is the way of dictatorships. Cities were cleaned; swamps were drained; the soil was fertilized; trains were run on time; unemployment was practically abolished; and much

of the begging in the streets was ended. These improvements were good, but they were made at the expense of the personal liberties of the Italian people and after cruel regulation. Everyone had to work for the good of the state and obey the state. Labor unions were not permitted and many of their leaders were exiled or killed; there was no free speech or press, nor right of assembly.

1. What caused the Italian people to be disappointed and dissatisfied following World War I?
2. Who was Mussolini? How did he become the head of the Italian government?
3. Who were the "black shirts"?
4. How was the government changed by Mussolini?
5. What agreement did Mussolini make with the Pope? Date?
6. What part did militarism play in Mussolini's program for Italy?
7. What reforms were instituted in Italy?
8. How were the personal liberties of the people curtailed by the government?



*In a characteristic pose, Mussolini speaks to a group of workmen who are draining the Pontine Marshes, one of the few worth-while projects by means of which the dictator hoped to keep himself in power.*

## FAILURE OF THE GERMAN REPUBLIC

**German Revolution** Upon the flight of the kaiser from Germany to Holland in 1918, the various states of the German Empire overthrew their rulers and set up republics. In 1919 the empire was converted into a German Republic. The problems of the new government were numerous and serious. The war had exhausted the country's resources. Trade was disrupted. The peace treaty which the young republic signed was unpopular. The German people had had little experience in democratic processes of government. The Communist leaders in Germany had aided in the revolution, hoping that they might gain control and set up a communistic state.

### German Republican Government

The chancellor of the new government was a Socialist, Friedrich Ebert (ä'bërt). The first important act of the government was to call an Assembly to meet in Weimar (vî'mär) in February, 1919, to draw up a constitution. There were many factions represented and therefore many shades of opinion were expressed. Out of the long debates came a constitution. It provided for a president who, like the president of France, had no real power. There were two houses in the parliament, but the lower house, or *Reichstag* (riks'täk), had the real control over affairs. It was elected by universal suffrage, while the *Reichsrat* (riks'rät), or upper house, was composed of persons appointed by the state governments. The executive authority was placed in the hands of a chancellor and a cabinet appointed by the president but responsible to the Reichstag.

The republic got off to a poor start. Many Germans held the republic responsible for

accepting the Versailles Treaty, the type of government. At the same time there were those who wanted monarchy, and at the other those who wanted communism. But the most serious trouble facing the new government was economic. The war had disorganized business. The large army was demobilized and seeking jobs that did not exist. The people who had lent money to the government during the war knew that they would not be paid, while at the same time the Allies expected reparations for the damage done by the war. The mark, the German unit of currency, declined in value and finally became worthless. The bankruptcy of the government was another reason for the unpopularity of the republic.

**Foreign Affairs** Germany's relations with her neighbors were not good. France never trusted her and neither did Belgium, although during the period when she met her payments on reparations they got along better. Great Britain encouraged the republic, but there was economic rivalry when the depression came and the German republic tried to get markets.

Despite the fact that the reparations were dropped, Germany was in the grip of the world-wide depression like all other countries. This paved the way for the rise of the National Socialist, or Nazi, party under Adolf Hitler. It seemed to many Germans that the republic had failed. Some even wanted to go back to a monarchy.

### ADOLF HITLER BECOMES THE DICTATOR OF GERMANY

**Adolf Hitler** Adolf Hitler was an Austrian citizen who had been a house painter, an art student, and a jack-of-



all-trades, but with very little success at any of them. In the World War he had won the iron cross for bravery in the German army, but he never rose above the rank of corporal. After the war he turned to politics and discovered that he could hold audiences with his fiery speeches. In 1923 he and his associates tried to overthrow the government by a coup in Munich, but it failed and Hitler was sentenced to prison. While there he wrote *Mein Kampf* (My Battle), the book that contained his political ideas and his plans for world conquest.



In less than a year he was out of prison and back in politics. The economic situation in Germany brought more and more Germans to his cause. In spell-binding speeches he attacked the so-called enemies of Germany: the Jews, the Communists, the Weimar Constitution, and the Versailles Treaty. These, he said, were the causes for Germany's distress. The Germans, he held, were a superior race. Such speeches brought him so much popularity that in 1932 he ran for the presidency and came out second in the race. Only von Hindenburg, the aged president who had

won fame as a World War general, got more votes. The next year Hindenburg asked Hitler to be chancellor of what Hitler called the *Third Reich* (rĭk). This was to develop into a complete dictatorship.

**Reichstag Fire** Hitler's National Socialists did not have a majority in the Reichstag, but they had control of the police force as well as of their private army of *storm troopers*. These had been trained without any interference from the republic. A fire at this time broke out in the building in which the Reichstag met, and Hitler blamed the destruction of the building on the Communists. Hundreds of them were thrown into jail, including many members of the Reichstag.

**Dictatorship of the Führer** (fŭ-rĕr) With his opponents out of the government, Hitler was given dictatorial powers in 1933. These he used unsparingly. He abolished the Reichstag. He deprived the German states of most of their powers of self-government and appointed a chancellor for each of them. The most important of these men was Herman Goering (gŭr'ing), who was made chancellor of Prussia and who remained Hitler's loyal aide for the rest of his life.

Like the Communist party in Russia, the Nazi party was kept small. Strict discipline was maintained at all times. Purges were used to get rid of any member who dared to differ with the policies of the Führer. The title of *Führer*, meaning leader, Hitler assumed after the death of Hindenburg, thereby combining the positions of president and chancellor.

**Religion** Both Catholics and Protestants protested against the policies of

the Nazis. The respect and devotion that were demanded by the state and Hitler made National Socialism a religion as well as a party. Ministers and priests who objected to these policies of fanatic devotion to the state were thrown into concentration camps.

**Economic Changes** Upon the advent of Hitler to power in 1933 Germany underwent certain economic changes, too. Among other things all labor unions were abolished. A vast public works program and a great rearmament program wiped out the unemployment that Hitler had found when he came to power. In fact, the need for workers became so urgent that the unemployed from surrounding countries found work in Germany. Many German capitalists had supported Hitler in preference to the Communists. They were permitted to keep their businesses but were subject to very high taxes and strict regulation of their businesses by the government.

Like Mussolini, Hitler attempted to make Germany self-sufficient. Agriculture and industry were encouraged. Chemists were kept busy creating substitutes, or synthetic materials for those that Germany did not produce or did not produce in sufficient quantities for her needs. Thus synthetic rubber, oil, cloth, and even foods were invented. Imports and exports were controlled to meet the national interests. Prices were set by the state for nearly all goods. In this way the Nazi government strictly supervised the whole economy of the country to gain self-sufficiency.

Germany's ambitions were more than self-sufficiency. Hitler planned to dominate the economy of the world, which the Germans, according to his teachings, should rule as superior people.



Brown Brothers

*To achieve Hitler's ambitions for Germany, the race for arms begins, which was to lead directly to military aggression.*

**Preparation for War** In order to achieve his ambitions Hitler began building a military machine. He denounced the Versailles Treaty and took Germany out of the League of Nations. Hitler built up an army of great strength and turned German industry to the improvement of means of transportation for military purposes and to the making of war materials. Such a program cost money, and so taxes were higher than they had ever been in Germany; although the government stopped publishing a budget, it was well known that there was a huge annual deficit. Despite the strict regulations and the huge expenditures of the Nazis, the mass of the Germans accepted the rule of Hitler either through fear or because they felt that he had done more for



them than the republic had done. Hitler was so successful in his program that by 1938 the defeated and demilitarized Germany of 1918 had emerged the strongest military power in Europe. Besides, clever propaganda and cruel suppression of all opposition had welded the nation into a unit ready to follow the Führer unquestioningly.

1. What problems did the German Republic face in 1919?
2. Who was the first chancellor of the German Republic?
3. What people comprised the convention that made the Weimar constitution?
4. What were the important provisions of the Weimar constitution?
5. Why was the German Republic unpopular?
6. What had been Hitler's history before 1933?
7. Why was Hitler invited to become chancellor?
8. How did Hitler gain his dictatorial powers? What use did he make of them to change the government? How did he keep his party loyal to him?
9. How did Hitler try to influence the religious elements in Germany?

10. How did Hitler's policies affect the economic life of Germany?
11. What effect did Hitler's policies have upon the budget of Germany and upon taxes?
12. What was Hitler's ambition for Germany as a world power?

## JAPANESE MILITARISTS ON THE MARCH

**Japanese Empire** Japan emerged from World War I one of the great powers of the world. She now had an empire, including Korea, Formosa, and Port Arthur, besides numerous small scattered islands, which were mandates, stretching south to the equator. Moreover, Japan now had a strong navy, an efficient army, healthy industries, and prosperous commerce. She was undoubtedly the strong power of the Western Pacific.

Besides this, Japan had become very nationalistic. The great masses of the people were taught to revere Emperor Hirohito (hē rô hē'tō) as half divine. He was the symbol of Japan whom ordinary people were never permitted to look upon. Reverence for the state and emperor were furthered through the state religion, Shintoism, which taught devotion to the emperor and hindered democratic processes.

This love of emperor and country was used to promote a spirit of imperialism among the masses of the population. Japan had 70,000,000 people living in a small area, most of which was mountainous and not suitable for agriculture. The usable land was about the size of the state of Indiana, which has only about four million inhabitants. Moreover, Japan had to import most of the minerals and raw materials she needed for manufacture. The Japanese leaders emphasized that Japan must expand





to the main continent of Asia and into the South Pacific islands in order to have living room and necessary materials.



*The tragic flight of the Chinese was one of the greatest mass movements in history.*

**Attack on Manchuria** Japanese leaders with imperialistic ideas sent troops to attack Manchuria in 1931. They did this under the pretense of protecting Japanese railroad property in Manchuria from the Chinese bandits. It was done without the consent of the civil government, because the military branch of the Japanese government was not responsible to the Japanese Diet but to the emperor. The Diet approved the action after it was done, however.

There were two political parties in Japan, one more nationalistic than the other. In 1932, through a *coup*, the extreme nationalistic and militaristic group gained control and committed Japan to the conquest of Manchuria. From then on, the energies of Japan were spent in exploiting more and more their hold on Manchuria. Japanese armies soon overran the country and were pressing on the northern provinces of China proper. The war lords of Japan were now in the saddle, preparing to expand by military means into China proper, the Philippines, and the other rich islands of the Pacific. The emperor was a tool of the

military clique, and Japan's economic life, like the economic life of Germany and Italy, was turned to war.

## **Dictators Seize Control in Other Countries**

Russia, Germany, and Italy were Europe's chief dictatorships following the World War, but several other countries also turned to absolute rule.

**Poland** One of the outcomes of the World War was the establishment of independent nations that had for centuries been subject to other peoples, especially to the Russians, Austrians, and Germans. President Wilson in one of the *Fourteen Points* had said that there should be an independent Poland with access to the sea. As soon as the revolution started in Germany, the Poles, who had been living since the end of the eighteenth century divided under the Russians, Germans, and Austrians, united and set up a government. The Peace Conference recognized the new Polish state, but the question of boundaries was a problem. There was no natural boundary between Poland and Russia nor between Germany and Poland. After much study and compromise these boundaries were finally set, but Poland wanted access to the Baltic Sea and so a peculiar arrangement was made to give it to her. A "Polish Corridor" to the sea at Danzig was established with the right of Germany to cross this corridor at a certain place. East Prussia was otherwise cut off from Germany.

From the beginning there were so many political parties in Poland that it was difficult to govern. The chief war hero, Joseph Pilsudski (pĕl sŏot'skĕ), was the first president, and the famous composer

and pianist, Ignace Paderewski, was premier. The government was never very satisfactory, and in 1926 Pilsudski, who had the army behind him, executed a *coup d'état* and established a government with dictatorial powers.

Poland was chiefly agricultural, although she improved her commerce after World War I. Under the republic many of the large estates were broken up, and annually for ten years 500,000 acres of land were distributed to the peasants, who used them for farming. In order to improve commerce, the Poles built their own port, Gdynia (gā dīn'ī ā), near the international city of Danzig. In twenty-five years it grew from a small fishing village to a city of 125,000 inhabitants, which handled most of Poland's overseas trade.

Poland had disputes with Germany and with the minorities within her own country. One problem was with the Jews, of whom there were large numbers living in Poland. From time to time there were violent outbreaks against the Jews and the matter was taken before the League of Nations. While Poland promised to give the Jews better treatment, there continued to be complaints. Likewise, the large Ukrainian and German minorities in Poland complained about the treatment they received. Hitler used the claims of Poland's bad treatment of Germans in Poland to whip up anti-Polish sentiment in Germany. The Polish Corridor, cutting East Prussia from the rest of Germany, was also a cause of friction between the two countries. While Poland improved her economic position somewhat, neither her government nor her foreign relations were good.

**Yugoslavia** Yugoslavia (ū gō-slāv' ī ā) was not a natural nation. The three

different groups, the Serbs, Croats, and Slovenes, that inhabited the country had never been united as a nation before. They had different languages and cultures. While they had voluntarily agreed in 1917 to form a nation, they soon discovered difficulties in working together. Finally, in January, 1929, King Alexander dissolved parliament and established an absolute rule in Yugoslavia. During the next three years Alexander tried to wipe out local differences. It was easy to establish new boundary lines and to refuse to permit the display of local flags, but it was not easy to change the cultures of the people, and that was the real problem. As a result of the friction that existed, Alexander was assassinated in October, 1934. His eleven-year-old son became king as Peter II.

**Turkey** Hungary, Bulgaria, Greece, Rumania, Yugoslavia, and Turkey all became dictator states in Eastern Europe. Of these the greatest changes came in Turkey. There a group of Young Turks, led by the able army officer, Mustapha Kemal (mōōs tā fā' kēm āl), overthrew the government of the Sultan and set up a republic in

*This railroad station at Ankara typifies modern Turkey*



Acme

which Kemal had dictatorial powers. His aim was to modernize Turkey, a country that had not changed its way of living for centuries. In doing so Kemal had the people adopt modern dress and separated the state from the religion of the Moslems. Women were encouraged to come out of their homes and to mingle with men on an equal basis. Kemal even abolished the old Turkish alphabet and introduced the Western alphabet of Europe. Although Kemal tried to bring Turkey up to date, he did not want her merely to imitate the West. He wanted a modern Turkey with its own culture.

Along with remarkable success in modernizing his country, Kemal also made Turkey strong. It was no longer called the "sick man of Europe." Modern industry, a well-trained army, and strong defenses at Constantinople made Turkey respected by its neighbors.

**The Baltic States** The land around the Baltic had been under Swedish rule during the later Middle Ages, but in the nineteenth century it became a part of Rus-

sia. She had tried to "Russify" the people, but a nationalistic movement developed among the different groups and they clung to their own cultures. When Russia was defeated in World War I, these peoples sought independence. It seemed for a time that they would fall under German rule, but after the Allied victory, the four small nations were recognized by the chief powers of the world as Finland, Lithuania, Latvia, and Esthonia. They were soon accepted as members of the League of Nations.

Their course as independent republics was not smooth. Lithuania, which bordered on Germany and Poland and which was not far from Russia, was under constant pressure from all of them. Esthonia and Latvia, bordering on Russia, were also subject to propaganda from that country. Within twenty years after they had established their independence, Lithuania, Latvia, and Esthonia had all come under the control of the dictatorships.

**Spain** Ever since the French Revolution there had been a struggle between the liberals and conservatives in Spain. Spain took no part in the World War, but the general discontent that followed the war did not pass by Spain. She was particularly plagued by industrial strikes during which riots and street fighting were common.

Beginning with a *coup* in 1921, Spain experienced ten years of unstable government. Finally, in 1931, King Alfonso fled to France and a "republic of the workers of all classes" was set up.

The new government made radical changes in Spain. Religious liberties were granted. The Jesuit order was dissolved and its property in Spain confiscated. All men and women over twenty-three years of age





were permitted to vote. Titles of nobility were abolished, and the large estates of the Church and nobles were to become the property of the government to be used by the landless peasants. All education was to be conducted by the state. Now Spain was no longer a semimedieval state, but a modern semisocialistic nation.



There were many in Spain who did not like the new government. The “rightists,” consisting of the clergy, those who wanted a monarchy, and the former nobility, wanted a return to the conditions before the revolution when they had had special privileges. On the other hand, the extreme left groups wanted Spain to adopt more socialistic measures. There were attempts at revolts against the government. Furthermore, unemployment and poverty due to the world-wide depression made the government in power unpopular.

Finally, in July, 1936, a revolt in the army was led by General Francisco Franco. He was head of a Fascist party called the Falange (fă lăng'hă) for the ancient Greek phalanx. Nearly all of the officers and about two thirds of the trained soldiers followed Franco, leaving the government with very little military support. Both the Fascists of Italy and the Nazis of Germany came to the

aid of Franco. Thousands of officers and men from those countries entered Franco's army as “volunteers.” On the other hand, Soviet Russia sent supplies to the Loyalists, as those who supported the republic of Spain were called. Officially the British, Americans, and French refused to take sides in the struggle, but many volunteers from the democratic countries of the world went to fight on the side of the Loyalists. But the arms furnished by Hitler and Mussolini finally outweighed the aid of individuals from other countries. On March 28, 1939, the civil war ended with a victory for Franco.

Franco set up a dictatorship. The Roman Catholic Church was restored to its old position. Land was returned to the Church and nobles. Labor unions were abolished and free speech and press were stamped out. Franco had gained supreme power over the life of all Spaniards.

### Dictatorship against Democracy

Fifteen years after the close of the World War, democracy was blotted out in a large part of the world. The great democracies of France, Great Britain, and the United States still stood, along with some small ones in Western Europe, but they seemed helpless to influence the rest of the world to follow their example.

1. Of what did Japan's empire consist at the close of World War I?
2. Who was the emperor of Japan after 1926? How did the Japanese regard him?
3. What was the state religion of Japan?
4. What was Japan's economic problem?
5. In 1932 what type of government gained control in Japan? What were their ambitions?
6. How did Japan's war in Manchuria start?

7. What smaller nations became dictatorships between World War I and World War II?
8. What was the "Polish Corridor"?
9. Who were Pilsudski, Paderewski, and Franco?
10. What was the chief problem of Yugoslavia?
11. How did Turkey become a modern state?
12. Tell the story of the civil war in Spain.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

- I. "Revolution is costly." Show this statement to be true.
2. Does freedom of religion in the Russian constitution mean what it means in the Bill of Rights of the United States Constitution?
3. How did communism differ from fascism?
4. Why did Mussolini and Hitler put so much stress on youth organizations?
5. Why were Italy, Germany, and Spain under Mussolini, Hitler, and Franco called "totalitarian" states?
6. In what way was Yugoslavia a violation of one of Wilson's Fourteen Points?
7. Was the efficiency of many of the dictatorships worth the price of loss of freedom? Was it really efficiency?
8. Was the progress of mankind retarded or encouraged by events covered in this chapter?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*  
 • Blackshirts • Bolsheviks • chancellor • collectives • concordat • dictatorships • Falange • Fascists • Five-Year Plan • Führer • Il Duce • kulaks • Nazis • N.E.P. • "Polish corridor" • Politbureau • Reichsrat • Reichstag • soviet • storm troopers • totalitarian • Third International

- Third Reich • "rightists" •
- 2. *Do you know your dates?*  
 • 1919 • 1922 • 1931 • 1933 • 1936 •
- 3. *Places to locate on a map:*  
 • Baltic States • Danzig • Estonia • Formosa • Korea • Latvia • Lithuania • Manchuria • Munich • Port Arthur • "Polish Corridor" • Spain • Switzerland • Turkey • Vatican City • Weimar • Yugoslavia •

### 4. *Can you identify these persons?*

- Alexander • Alfonso • Friedrich Ebert • Francisco Franco • Herman Göring • Hirohito • Adolf Hitler • Mustafa Kemal • Nicolas Lenin • Mussolini • Nicholas II • Ignace Paderewski • Joseph Pilsudski • Josef Stalin • Leon Trotsky • Victor Emmanuel III •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. *Make a report to the class on one of the following topics:*

- a. Shintoism and its effect upon Japan
- b. Life on a Russian Collective
- c. Mussolini's march on Rome
- d. Russian Kulaks
- e. Education under Nazi rule in Germany
- f. Labor organizations in Fascist Italy

2. Divide a paper into three columns. In the first write the restrictions on political and personal liberties in Nazi Germany; in the second, write opposite each item in the first column the conditions in Russia; in the third write the conditions in the United States. Compare your papers and make additions and corrections to your lists.

3. Read a biography of one of the persons mentioned in this chapter who interests you. Give the highlights of his life to the class.

### III. Group Assignments

- On an outline map of Europe show the democratic countries in 1938 in one color and the dictator states in another. Place on the map the approximate population of each state.



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## The Democracies Face Many Problems

**T**he First World War had been won by the Allied nations, but at great cost. The democracies of the world now faced keen problems that challenged their leadership. Heavy debts, unemployment, as munition-making and other war industries ceased and large returning armies sought employment, the cost of veterans' care, these were some of the burdens of the democracies. The reconstruction problems were acute as well.

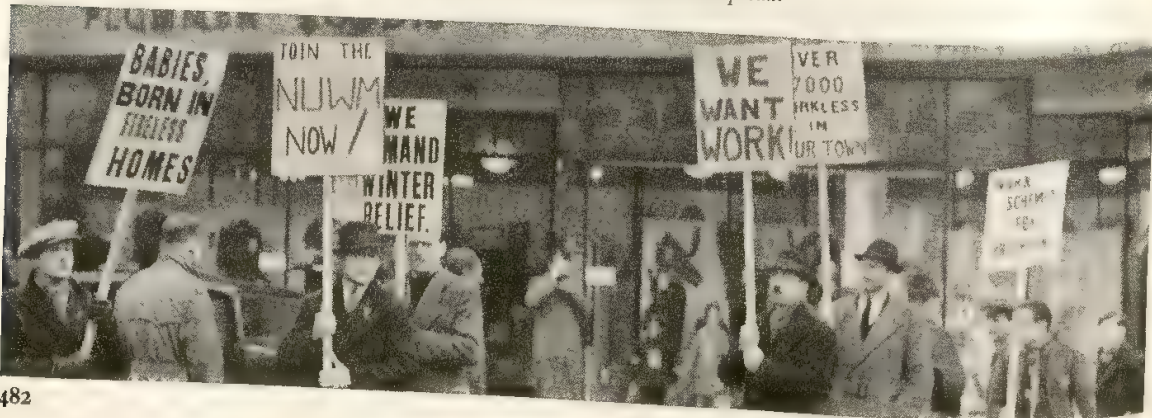
### GREAT BRITAIN

The First World War had been a heavy drain on Great Britain. While a few men had made large fortunes out of the war, the economic condition of the great mass of the

*With thousands out of work in Britain and elsewhere, demonstration parades like this one were common. Veterans sold apples on the street corners in New York City. Disillusionment was widespread.*

working people had not been improved. Following the war, England also faced keener competition in the markets of the world because other countries that had increased manufacturing during the war in order to make munitions now set their factories to making civilian goods. These goods competed with England's manufactures and resulted in unemployment for many English factory workers.

Hoping to improve their situation, English workers joined the Labor party in large numbers, under the leadership of Ramsay MacDonald. Most of the new Laborites came from the Liberal party, thus weakening that party. In 1923, when the Labor party succeeded in getting the largest num-





ber of seats in Parliament, Ramsay MacDonald became prime minister. Britain's economic condition did not improve, however, and MacDonald lost his position in less than a year.

### **Stanley Baldwin, Prime Minister**

Stanley Baldwin, the next prime minister, was the leader of the Conservative party. The election of 1924 gave the Conservatives the largest majority in Parliament that any party had had in many years. The Conservative government extended old-age and unemployment benefits and adopted protective tariffs, but these measures did not improve England's economic plight. In fact, unemployment increased and Baldwin was unable to cut the expenses of the government. When the operators of the coal mines asked the miners to work longer hours and at the same time accept a cut in wages, the miners went out on a strike. In 1926 a nation-wide sympathy strike of two million workers brought England near an economic standstill and social revolution. Despite the danger, miners were not granted their demands and the strike ended in failure. England's big problem was unemployment.

**Coalition Cabinet** In 1931 MacDonald, who was again prime minister, invited members of the Liberal and Conservative parties to help him form a *coalition* government in which all parties would have members in the cabinet. The Conservatives were the most numerous in Parliament, however, and under their influence England became very nationalistic. Tariffs were raised to keep out foreign goods and campaigns to "buy British" goods only were staged. But all these measures gave little help to the average worker, for he still had no job.

**Relations with Russia** What attitude should Britain take toward the totalitarian states of Russia, Germany, and Italy? That was a pressing problem of the period following the World War. Fascists and Communists were winning many followers in some other Western European countries, but they were not very successful in Britain. While the British did not approve of communism, because of trade relations, Britain had recognized the Communist government of Russia in 1924 and sent an ambassador to the Kremlin.

**Relations with Italy** The British and Italian governments had been on the most friendly terms since the unification of Italy. When Mussolini began his imperialistic measures in Africa, however, the interests of the two countries clashed. Italy's conquest of Ethiopia in 1935 and her ambitions to make the Mediterranean an "Italian lake" worried Britain, for the Mediterranean was an important part of England's "life line" to India.

**Relations with Germany** After the Weimar Republic was set up in Germany, England's sympathies were largely with Germany. She hoped for a strong Germany to prevent French economic domination of Western Europe. However, when Hitler began his series of aggressions, the British became fearful and drew closer to Germany's two chief potential enemies, France and Poland.

Despite the fact that the dictatorships were building large armies, Englishmen were strongly opposed to war or military preparation. They had suffered greatly from the World War and knew that another war could bring them no good and much more suffering. The British watched history

being made by the new and aggressive governments while they grappled with problems of empire and their very bad economic conditions at home.

1. Why did the Labor party grow in numbers in Britain following World War I? Who was the leader of the party?
2. Who was Stanley Baldwin? What measures did Parliament pass during his first ministry?
3. What is a coalition government?
4. Why did Britain recognize the Soviet government?
5. Why did the good relations between Britain and Italy become strained?
6. How did Britain's attitude toward Germany change after Hitler came to power?
7. What policy did the British government take toward building armaments during this period? Why?

## THE BRITISH EMPIRE BEGINS TO WEAKEN

One of Great Britain's problems was the strong national spirit that was growing in her dominions and colonies and sometimes breaking out in strikes and riots.

For many years Western nations had acted toward their colonies as though they had been divinely appointed to rule other peoples whom they considered "backward" and to carry Western civilization to them.

This intense national pride and feeling of superiority was contagious, and now countries that had been colonies were infected with it. Following the World War there were demands not only by British colonies but from other quarters that colonies be given independence. When it was suggested that they were not yet ready to assume the responsibilities of self-govern-

ment, the colonial leaders said in effect, "We would rather rule ourselves badly than be ruled well by a foreign power."

**Eire** From no place were there more insistent demands for independence than in southern Ireland, which for all practical purposes became an independent nation. Following the war, the Sinn Féiners were demanding more than the 1914 Home Rule Law would give them. They wanted a fully self-governing country. At last, in 1920, Lloyd George, the World War prime minister who was still in power, succeeded in getting a new law through Parliament. According to this act the six northern counties, Ulster, were left with Great Britain. The twenty-six southern counties, which were almost solidly Roman Catholic, were to have self-government under their own parliament. They were to remain a part of the British Empire, owing allegiance to the king. The Irish Free State, as they were called, protested this division, but in a treaty signed in 1921 accepted the dominion status with the understanding that Ulster could vote to join the south if it wished. Ulster voted to stay out of the Irish Free State. Ulster sends members to the British Parliament and is ruled as a part of Great Britain.

Eamon DeValera (ā'mūn děv á lār'á), an



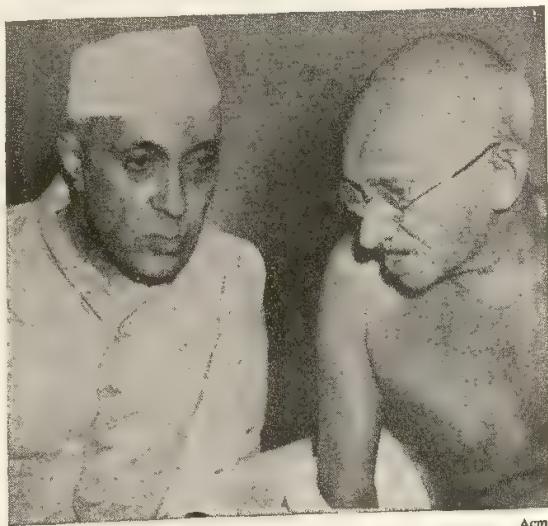
American-born Irishman, became the president of the Irish Free State in 1932. He was an extreme nationalist. Under his guidance Ireland abolished the oath of allegiance to the king and stopped payments owed to Great Britain. Britain protested, but the Irish stood firm in their decision. They took the Irish name Eire (ā'rě) for their country, as a symbol of their new independence.

**Egypt** During the war England had strengthened her control over Egypt. As the war progressed, the Egyptian people became more nationalistic. Finally they demanded that the British withdraw, but it was not until 1922 that an agreement was reached between the two. Then Egypt was given her independence. Britain, however, was to protect the Suez Canal and have joint control in the Anglo-Egyptian Sudan. In 1956 the Sudan became independent and entered the United Nations. In July, 1956, Egypt's President Gamal Nasser seized the Suez Canal and demanded all tolls for Egypt. In October, British and French planes bombed Egyptian air bases in an effort to regain international control over the Suez Canal, so vital to world trade. The UN General Assembly promptly called for an immediate cease-fire.

**India** As a result of the war, India incurred a large debt. Thousands of Indians, recruited for the British army, played a large part in the Allied cause. Many Indians believed that their efforts in the war entitled them to independence.

There were various religious groups in India, but the Hindus led the way in demanding self-government. Their leader was Mohandas Gandhi (mō'hān dās gān'dē), a Hindu whose parents had sent him to England to be educated at Oxford Univer-

sity. Upon his return home, Gandhi practiced law in Bombay and then spent several years in South Africa. In 1924 he returned to India to help in the fight for self-government, but it was an unusual "fight," for Gandhi was opposed to violence. He thought the Indians could best serve their cause quietly but firmly by refusing to cooperate with the British. They should not obey British laws, nor buy British goods, and they should refuse to hold office under the British. If they followed this policy of civil disobedience and nonviolence, Gandhi believed the British would have to leave India. Despite the fact that they looked upon Gandhi as their spiritual leader and teacher



*Premier Nehru confers with Gandhi, whom he greatly admired, at the All India Congress in Bombay in 1946.*

and called him *Mahatma* (mā hāt'mā), meaning "great-souled one," many Indians grew impatient under his peaceful leadership and resorted to violence against the government.

In 1919 the British decided to grant a measure of self-rule to India, but it was not enough to satisfy the Indians and trouble



continued. In 1930 a conference was held in London between the leaders of the Indians and the British. As a result of these negotiations a constitution was granted to India in 1935. This divided India into eleven provinces. Each had its own governor, but a national congress served the whole country.

In the election of 1947 the Congress party, under the leadership of Pandit Nehru (*nā'rōō*), a friend and follower of Gandhi, won. Nehru became prime minister. This party pressed for even more self-government for their country. India might have been more successful if the country had been united in its demands. But there was an ever-widening split between the two chief groups in the country, the Hindus and the Mohammedans. The latter feared that under a Hindu-controlled India they might be worse off than under an English-controlled country. Therefore, they wanted a separate state for the Mohammedans. Since the groups in India could not agree among themselves, Great Britain did not go any further at that time in giving the Indian people self-rule.

**South Africa** A different situation existed in South Africa. It was plagued by racial problems. As the Negro became better educated, he resented the superior economic, social, and political position of the white man in a country that had originally belonged to him. The question of how many social and political rights to give the Negro then became an issue in the elections in South Africa. The Hindus who had settled in the country also grew more restless. From time to time the Negroes and Hindus rioted against the Europeans, causing bloodshed.

In South Africa, as in Eire and India, there

was a strong demand for breaking ties entirely with Great Britain. A new Nationalist party was formed that included many of the Boer population, who were strongly opposed to Negro rights. They were especially eager to establish a republic. Jan Smuts, who was for many years prime minister, held the people of Dutch and English ancestry together for the time being, but trouble was brewing for the years ahead.

## CANADA GROWS IN IMPORTANCE

Canada, too, had played a very important part in the war. She had supplied both men and materials for the British Imperial forces. At the close of the war, therefore, she sent representatives to the peace conference at Versailles. When the League of Nations was established she became an active member. Although before the war Great Britain had managed Canada's foreign affairs, in 1923 Canada negotiated her own trade treaty with the United States.

One reason for Canada's growing importance was her active economic development. Her most important source of wealth and livelihood was agriculture, and she furnished raw materials for the industries of both Great Britain and the United States. During and after the war, industry grew rapidly in Canada itself. To aid in her economic development, two railroads were built spanning the country from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Unlike some parts of the empire, Canada's relations with Great Britain continued to be satisfactory.

## THE STATUTE OF WESTMINSTER

Because many English-speaking parts of the British Empire believed that they were fully able to rule themselves, at a conference

of the representatives of Great Britain and the dominions held in 1926, a resolution for self-government was passed. According to that resolution, Great Britain and the dominions "are autonomous communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any respect of their domestic or external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown, and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations." In 1931 the British Parliament sanctioned the resolution and made it law. It is known as the Statute of Westminster.

A British Empire with far-flung possessions remained despite these movements. A map of the world showed dozens of small islands or large sections of continents belonging to Great Britain. The English-speaking dominions were free nations, however. They, with Great Britain, formed the British Commonwealth of Nations.

1. For what did the act of 1920 regarding Ireland provide? Did it satisfy Ireland?
2. Who was DeValera? What changes did he bring about in 1932?
3. What were the provisions of the treaty between Britain and Egypt in 1922?
4. What part did India play in World War I?
5. Who was Gandhi? What theory did he have of opposing British rule in India?
6. What were the steps by which India got her independence?
7. Who was Pandit Nehru?
8. Why was India not united in its demands of Britain?
9. What problems of nationality and race troubled South Africa?
10. How did Canada grow in importance?
11. What was the Statute of Westminster?
12. What is the British Commonwealth of Nations?

## FRANCE CONTINUES TO FEAR GERMANY

The World War had been fought largely on French territory and the destruction of property had been devastating. Public buildings, homes, roads, railroads, and even the soil were ruined in northern France. Despite Germany's default in her payment of reparations, the reconstruction of France was pushed by the government and the French people worked hard and valiantly to revive their country.

**Government** The government of France did not change to any extent following the war. The same political parties held about the same ideas of policy. Since there were so many political parties, it was necessary, as it had been before the war, to have a coalition government. Sometimes the coalition was made up of a bloc from the liberal "left," groups made up of laborers, middle class merchants, and farmers who wanted laws to benefit labor. They believed the rich should bear the brunt of the taxes. They also stood for government ownership of railroads and public utilities. Sometimes the conservative "right," controlled largely by bankers and businessmen, gained control of the government. This was a more nationalistic group, demanding a strong foreign policy and reparations from Germany but objecting to the regulation of business and to heavy taxes. Communism won a number of converts in France.

When the great depression came in the 1930's, French ministries rose and fell in rapid succession. None of them was able to find a plan to restore prosperity to France.

**Foreign Policy** Through much of the period following the war, France

was occupied with the question of national security. She felt that she must prepare herself in the event of another war with Germany, whom she did not trust. She maintained a large army through a system of conscription. She made *mutual assistance* pacts with Belgium, Czechoslovakia, Yugoslavia, Rumania, and Poland. Such pacts provided that if one member were attacked, the others would come to its assistance. France stood for a strong League of Nations to hold any aggressor nation in check. Besides all these measures, she built an expensive and complicated line of fortresses between her and Germany, called the Maginot (măzh'īnō) Line.

The alliances France made with her neighbors brought her to a position of leadership among many of the powers of Eu-



*The valuable coal mines in the Ruhr Valley make that small area of land important and much coveted.*

rope. For this position France was largely indebted to Aristide Briand, who held various cabinet posts in the French government. He is remembered for the Kellogg-Briand Pact, or Pact of Paris, also.

Following Briand's death, France, like Great Britain, had an uncertain foreign pol-

icy. In general, France drew closer to Britain and Russia and became more and more fearful of Germany, especially after Adolph Hitler came into power. There were many Frenchmen, however, especially the clergy, who did not favor close relations with a communistic and anti-religious Russia. In the meantime, Hitler watched the changing and indecisive policy of France and decided that it would not be difficult to subdue her.

### **The French Colonial System**

France had the second largest colonial empire in the world in 1918. Its colonial population of sixty-eight million was made up chiefly of natives, for few Frenchmen emigrated to the colonies. The French policy of permitting overseas colonies to have representation in the French Parliament was a unique method of giving recognition to the colonies. This continued to some extent after the war, but in most colonies the ballot was not given to many of the natives. The nationalistic spirit that was so pronounced in parts of the British Empire was much less evident in the French Empire.

1. What fear motivated most French policy after the war?
2. What measures did France take to try to be prepared for the menace that she feared?
3. What people made up the "left" bloc in the French Parliament? the "right" bloc?
4. Why did France change prime ministers so often?
5. Why was security the aim of French foreign policy following the war?
6. How did Aristide Briand try to get security for France?
7. Why did France waver in her foreign policy?
8. What problems did France have with her North African possessions?



## OTHER EUROPEAN COUNTRIES REMAIN DEMOCRATIC

### The Scandinavian Countries

The other democracies of Europe were plagued by the depression, too. The Scandinavian countries of Denmark, Sweden, and Norway had pressure from both Fascist and Communist groups to overthrow their systems of government, but these radical parties made little headway in these democratic nations. The Scandinavian countries tried, with fair success, to solve their economic problems by forming co-operatives.

**Belgium, Netherlands, and Switzerland** Belgium, The Netherlands, and Switzerland were also affected by Fascist and Communist agitation, but they held firmly to democracy, despite the fact that they were hard pressed by the depression and that they bordered Germany whom they, too, feared.

**Finland** The largest and strongest of the new Baltic states was Finland. The Finns engaged chiefly in agriculture and dairying and they believed strongly in democracy. Because of their long and unhappy relations with Russia, there was a pronounced anti-Russian sentiment among the people. Their geographic position, next door to the Soviet Union, made it difficult for the small republic. In the 1930's the Finns turned more and more to Germany, whose military might under Hitler they admired.

**Austria** The peace treaty with the once-proud Austro-Hungarian Empire of the Hapsburgs divided that empire into several small countries, most of which became dictatorships before or during the



Morocco College

*The campus of a French-Morocco college.*

1930's. The Hapsburgs, in the meantime, were deposed and went into exile. Austria and Czechoslovakia, unlike some of the states carved out of the former large empire, set up democratic republics.

The Communists tried to gain control of Austria but were unable to do so. Germany proposed that Austria unite with the German Republic and the Austrians approved of the plan. But the Great Powers feared that such a union, *Anschluss* (än'shlöös), would give too much power to Germany and they refused to permit it to be carried out.

After the rise of Hitler to power in Germany, the Nazi party grew in Austria and its members kept up a loud cry for the *Anschluss*. Skilled agitators were sent in from Germany to spread propaganda in favor of the union and against the government of Chancellor Engelbert Dollfuss, who opposed the union after Hitler came to power.

Finally the Nazis staged a plot against the Austrian government. The plot failed, but Dollfuss was murdered by the plotters.

In 1936 Hitler recognized the independence of Austria and promised not to interfere in her internal affairs. Then, in March, 1938, having carefully laid the groundwork by means of propaganda and spies, he marched into Vienna and Austria became a part of the Third Reich.

**Czechoslovakia** Of all the new states carved out of the Austro-Hungarian Empire, Czechoslovakia was the most democratic, prosperous, and stable. This was partly due to healthy systems of agriculture and industry within the country, which made for prosperity. It was also due to the two men who guided the new state, Thomas Masaryk (mă'sá rĭk) and Eduard Beneš (běn'ěsh).

Masaryk was elected president and retained that position until his retirement in 1935. He was a professor at the University of Prague when the World War opened. Being a liberal, he then left Prague and went abroad, working for Czech independence. He was joined abroad by Eduard Beneš, another professor. Together they worked among the statesmen of the world, trying to convince them that their people should be independent. When the war was over and Czechoslovakia became a nation, Beneš was made foreign minister. He kept that position until the retirement of Masaryk, when he became president.

All during his public life Beneš worked for co-operation with other nations. But he realized the weakness of his country's geographical position, surrounded as it was by more powerful neighbors. He built up a system of alliances for Czechoslovakia, hoping to make his country secure in this way.

Thus, following the World War the countries of Europe divided into three camps: the democratic nations, the Fascist and Nazi dictatorships, and the Communist dictatorship.

1. Which European countries remained democratic between World Wars I and II?
2. How did the Scandinavian countries try to solve their economic problems?
3. Why was Austria weak after World War I?
4. How did Austria lose her independence?
5. Why was Czechoslovakia such a stable republic for several years?
6. Who were its leaders?

## THE UNITED STATES HAS POST-WAR PROBLEMS

**Isolationism** The democracies of Europe were not alone in having problems after the war. The democracies of the Western Hemisphere were confronted with some grave situations, too. When the World War was over, the United States was ready to forget the rest of the world,



except for purposes of trade and business, and return to isolationism. The United States had not wanted to enter the war, but circumstances seemed to push her into it. Many American soldiers went to war singing

"An' O my sweetheart, don't you fear,  
I'll bring you a king for a souvenir,  
I'll git you a Turk an' a Kaiser too—  
An' that's about all one feller can do!"

Their song expressed the optimism about settling the world's trouble in their own direct and courageous way.

Many of these same soldiers came home disillusioned. They had seen Europe at its worst, during a frightful war, and they did not like it. They wanted the United States to have no more to do with Europe; in a word, they were isolationists. The Democratic party that had been in power during the war and wanted the United States to join the League of Nations was voted out of office overwhelmingly.

The United States Congress then took many steps that were isolationist in character. Besides refusing to join the League of Nations and the World Court, it placed high tariffs on foreign goods. The acts of Congress reflected the wishes of the majority of the citizens. In the 1920's the United States had indeed turned its back on the rest of the world.

**Economic Conditions** The United States believed it could afford to be isolationist, for the country as a whole was prosperous. Europe wanted manufactured goods that Americans had to sell. Loans to several European countries were spent in the United States, which created more work for American labor. The American public,

too, was eager to buy goods it had not been able to get during the war. The sale of automobiles rose sharply, and a new invention, the radio, had opened up a whole new field of business.

There was one segment of the American population that was not prosperous during the 1920's. That was the farmers. During the war, when the American army was consuming large quantities of farm products, the United States could not supply all that were needed. So at that time Australia, India, and Canada captured some of the world's markets. The Soviet Union also became a competitor of the United States after the war. Consequently the American farmer had surplus crops and the prices of his commodities did not keep up with the high prices of manufactured goods that he had to buy.

**The New Deal** Along with the rest of the world, the United States suffered from a depression in the 1930's. Because of that, the Republican party, which had been in power since 1921, lost the election of 1932 and a Democrat, Franklin D. Roosevelt, was elected President. During his administration, measures were passed designed to combat the depression. He called his policy the "New Deal." It consisted of measures for relief of millions of the jobless, including widespread public works to create employment. These consisted of reforestation, building parks, roads, bridges, and dams to prevent floods and to generate electricity, and the erection of public buildings. Laws were passed to aid the farmer, to aid in the education of youth, and to prevent bank failures. Stricter regulations were placed on business generally. A far-reaching Social Security law provided for unemployment compensation, old age insurance, and



aid to many groups of handicapped persons. A labor law guaranteed labor the right to bargain collectively with the employers. The New Deal sponsored housing reform also.

The New Deal program brought forth a storm of protest. Many persons bitterly accused the administration of being "socialistic." On the other hand, labor generally favored it. The popularity of the program was shown by the fact that Roosevelt was the only President of the United States to be elected four times.

**Foreign Policy** Roosevelt's foreign policy was cautious and often uncertain. He tried unsuccessfully to get the United States to join the World Court. He recognized the Soviet government, which had now been in power in Russia for seventeen years. Tariffs on many goods from foreign countries were reduced to encourage trade. When Hitler began to be aggressive in Europe, Roosevelt urged the democratic countries to cut off trade relations with Germany until she changed her ways. On the other hand, Roosevelt refused to go along with the nations at an economic conference in London dealing with the world's economic ills.

The United States, like the democracies of Europe, did not take leadership into her own hands. She seemed to be charting her own course and letting the rest of the world do the same.

**The Philippines** The United States had early promised the Philippines their independence when they were capable of ruling themselves. In the meantime, the United States tried to improve the social and economic conditions of the Philippines. Step by step the United States gave the

islands more control over their own government until, in 1934, the Philippine Independence Act was passed. By this act the islands would be independent at the end of ten years. During the ten years, the Filipinos were gradually to be trained in self-government. This act surprised the nations of the world, most of whom expected the United States to keep the islands under its rule indefinitely.

1. Why was the United States isolationist in her outlook after the war?
2. What measures did Congress pass that demonstrated its isolationism?
3. Describe the economic conditions of the United States during the 1920's.
4. What were the chief measures of the New Deal? What was the general aim of the New Deal?
5. Describe President Roosevelt's foreign policy.
6. Trace the progress of the Philippines toward independence.

## THE NATIONALISTS FAIL TO UNITE CHINA

After the war the Nationalist, or Kuomintang (kwō'mǐn'dǎng'), party in China tried to unite China and to rid the government of Western controls. The government revised treaties with foreign powers through which the Western powers gave up many of their special rights in China. But there was in China a strong Communist influence from Soviet Russia. The Communists succeeded in getting many prominent positions in the Kuomintang party, and it seemed for a time that they might take it over. Chiang Kai-shek (jē āng' kī'shēk') was the military leader who succeeded Dr. Sun Yat-sen as head of the Kuomintang party. In 1926 he

turned against the Communists and began to purge his party of them. He was successful in uniting the provinces of China, and in 1928 China became a member of the League of Nations.

China was, however, beset by problems and misfortunes. Floods and famine caused an increasing number of Chinese to listen to Communist promises. The Kuomintang party itself was not united. Rival military leaders in different sections of the country took advantage of the weakness of the central government to set up their own rule. Two provinces rebelled and set up a separate government. All the while Japan watched this display of disunity with keen interest.

### Nationalism and Imperialism

**Remain** By the close of the 1930's nationalism was expressing itself in two directly opposite ways. The aggressive dictators of Italy, Germany, and Japan were imperialistic, seeking to extend their power over large parts of the world. At the same time, a tide of nationalism was rising among the people who had been ruled by or who were under the influence of Western powers. These people were seeking the right to control their own destinies.

While the colonies were trying to throw off the rule of their mother countries, and while the United States was working toward independence for the Philippines, and Great Britain was sanctioning the Statute of Westminster, the dictators were looking about to see where they could find colonies. Japan turned toward China and the islands of the South Pacific as a possible field for expansion. There she could find immense wealth and a place for her surplus population to migrate. Mussolini began to speak of the Mediterranean Sea as *Mare*

*Nostrum* (our sea); he hoped to supplant English influence there or even to rebuild the ancient Roman Empire. Adolf Hitler was the most outspoken of all concerning his aims for Germany. He demanded that Germany's pre-war colonies be returned and that all Germans be united with the Third Reich. Over and over he shouted to huge, attentive audiences that the Germans as a superior race must have more *Lebensraum* (living space).

1. Who succeeded Dr. Sun Yat-sen as leader of China?
2. What political party did he lead?
3. What stood in the way of national unity in China?
4. What was the attitude of the dictators toward imperialism?

### QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Why should England and her nineteenth-century power be called a "miracle," as it was by one historian?
2. Do diplomatic relations between countries mean that they approve of one another's forms of government and policies?
3. Why did an empire seem to be more important to Great Britain than to the United States?
4. Why did the British colonies and dominions demand independence in the 1920's and 1930's while the French colonies continued to be ruled much as they had been before World War I?
5. Was Great Britain wise in sanctioning the Treaty of Westminster?
6. Was Britain's policy toward Canada's growing nationalism wiser than the policy she had pursued toward the American colonies in 1775?
7. Were the British wise in not preparing for

war when they saw the preparations of the totalitarian states?

8. Does France still seem to fear Germany? Explain.

9. Is Czechoslovakia still a "strong democratic country"?

10. Did nationalism as expressed in the treaties after the war bring the peace and happiness sought by the people of Central and Eastern Europe?

11. Was the policy of isolation followed by the United States after the war a wise policy?

12. Was the United States in a healthy economic condition during the 1920's when most of the farmers were not prosperous? Why or why not?

13. How did the action of the United States in regard to the Philippines differ from that of other countries in regard to their dependencies?

14. Why was Chiang's problem such a difficult one?

. Oxford . Ethiopia .

4. *Can you identify these persons?*

. Stanley Baldwin . Englebert Dollfuss . Thomas Masaryk . Eduard Beneš . Mohandas Gandhi . Benito Mussolini . Chiang Kai-shek . Lloyd George . Pandit Nehru . Sun Yat-sen . Adolf Hitler . Aristide Briand . Franklin D. Roosevelt . Eamon DeValera . Ramsay MacDonald . Jan Smuts .

II. **Can You Express Yourself Well?**

1. Give an oral or written report to the class on one of the following topics:

. Picturesque Ireland . Gandhi's policy of civil disobedience . Negroes of South Africa . The Suez Canal . The natives of the Philippines . Diamond mining in South Africa . Oxford University . War lords of China .

2. Pretend that you are a news reporter having a five-minute interview with a member of the class who represents one of the men below. Confine the interview to the topics given, and have your questions prepared in advance.

a. Gandhi, on his method of civil disobedience  
b. Smuts, on his loyalty to Britain  
c. Chiang, on his opposition to the communists

3. Read a book on one of the British colonies or dominions or on one of the smaller democratic countries of Europe. Give an illustrated travel talk to the class.

4. There are many interesting people mentioned in this chapter. Read a short biography of one of them and give a review of his life to the class.

5. Give a floor talk on one of the following topics:

. Folk high schools of Denmark . The match industry of Sweden . The abdication of Edward VIII . Seal hunting off the coast of Canada or Alaska . The Hudson Bay Company today . Canadian Pacific Railroad . Norway, the land of the midnight sun .

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. *Can you explain these terms?*

. Anschluss . coalition government . "Italian lake" . New Deal . Commonwealth of Nations . Maginot Line . Statute of Westminster . "England's life line" . Mahatma . sympathy strike . isolationism . mutual assistance pacts . Kuomintang . war lords .

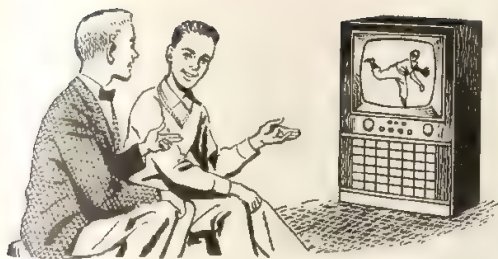
2. *Do you know your dates?*

. 1920 . 1921 . 1932 . 1935 .

3. *Places to locate on the map:*

. Anglo-Egyptian Sudan . Belgium . Finland . Rumania . Bombay . Iran . Suez Canal . Cairo . British Commonwealth . Iraq . Irish Free State . Canada . Sweden . Czechoslovakia . The Netherlands . Switzerland . Denmark . Norway . Yugoslavia . Third Reich . Eire





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## World War I Changes Man's Culture

When the World War started in 1914 many people in the United States had never ridden in an automobile nor seen an airplane. They had no electric refrigerators or washing machines, no electric irons or fans, and no radios or televisions. They had seen very few, if any, movies. Many of them used kerosene lamps for lighting their homes and coal or wood stoves for cooking and heating. Many adults did not have a high school education. Few of them had bathrooms or telephones in their homes. Women's dresses touched the floor and very few women would have dared to wear their hair cut short. But all of this soon passed, for the twenty-five years between the opening of World War I and World War II saw more changes in ways of living in the Western and much of the Eastern World than any similar time since mankind first came to live on this planet.

ence, gave financial aid to scientific projects. Research laboratories were set up to study medicine, scientific farming, means of transportation and communication, and substitutes for scarce natural resources. Wealthy men gave millions of dollars to "foundations" for similar research, while in large universities scientists carried on investigations along many lines and nearly every large manufacturing industry had its research department.

*Healthier plants may result from experimentation with treatment by radioactive materials.*

Acme



### IMPORTANT DEVELOPMENTS IN SCIENCE

Science came to play a very important part in the lives of people in the period following the war. The governments of many countries, realizing the importance of sci-

**Chemistry** The twentieth century is sometimes referred to as the century of chemistry, because modern chemistry has made profound changes in the lives of people. One of the most important contributions was the development of plastics. New fabrics were developed, too, and rayon, nylon, and orlon came into common use. Glass was improved until some of it could be used directly over a flame and other types were stronger than steel. Some glass was spun into cloth. Chemistry produced many products synthetically. The alchemists of the Middle Ages would have opened their eyes in wonder at the results of twentieth-century chemical research.



**Medicine** In medicine, too, great strides were made. Vitamins were discovered and came to be extensively used for certain human ailments as well as in diseases of plants and animals. Research in the functions of the glands made possible the cure of ills formerly thought to be incurable. Better X-ray equipment enabled physicians to take pictures of the interior of the body, thus helping them in the diagnosis of diseases. Improvements in the treatment of tuberculosis, cancer, and diabetes saved many lives, and improved surgery and anesthetics aided thousands of people. A group of new "wonder drugs" was discovered to help fight different types of wounds and infectious diseases. The first of these was sulfa, which came into use in 1935, followed by penicillin.

**Albert Einstein** Perhaps the outstanding scientist and mathematician of the first half of the twentieth century was the German-born Albert Einstein. Like many scientists, Einstein was a professor whose theories seemed far removed from the practical life of the average person. In his theory of relativity Einstein pointed out that there is a fourth dimension in addition to length, breadth, and width. This fourth dimension is *time*.

**The Atom** About 400 B.C. Greek philosophers had advanced the theory that all matter is composed of minute particles, called atoms from the Greek word *atomos*, which means not divisible. Later thinkers had from time to time agreed with that theory. Very early in the nineteenth century an Englishman, John Dalton, proved that all matter is composed of atoms. By the end of the same century it was discovered that the atom is not really *atomos* but can be divided. Further research was done by many scientists, but it was not until 1945 that atomic energy was put to use. At that time an atomic bomb was manufactured under the joint direction of the British, Canadian, and American governments.

The discovery of the use of atomic energy is probably the most important event of the twentieth century and one of the most important in all history. The atomic bomb is an instrument of war so deadly that its unlimited use could destroy mankind. And the hydrogen bomb, developed later, defies the imagination in its destructive powers. The possibilities for the use of atomic energy for the benefit of mankind are limitless, too. Along this direction only a beginning had been made. In 1951 the British used atomic energy for the first time to heat a

building of eighty offices. It was also used to furnish energy for running a ship. In the United States atomic energy has been used in the treatment of certain diseases, and research is still going on.

**Transportation** Methods of transportation were likewise revolutionized by new inventions and means of production. After the war the mass production of automobiles made them cheaper. Henry Ford, using the principle of interchangeable parts, was the first to introduce the assembly line in the mass production of cars and trucks. The result was more cars at a much lower price.

The extensive use of the automobile changed other industries. Petroleum and rubber suddenly took on great importance and countries began looking about for sources of those raw materials. British and American companies bought oil fields in Mexico, South America, and the Near East. Rubber plantations multiplied in the Dutch East Indies until those islands became the world's chief source of rubber. The automobile also made good roads necessary for safe and comfortable driving, and road-building began in earnest. Tourist cabins, roadside restaurants, service stations, and other activities made possible by the automobile created employment for many thousands of people.

By the beginning of World War I, someone had crossed the English Channel by plane. Roger Bacon's thirteenth-century prediction had come true. The air age had begun. The war stimulated improvements in airplanes, for they came to be used as instruments of war. Following the war, the airplane became more and more important as a means of travel. Regularly scheduled flights were made between the



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*Admiral Richard Byrd explored the Arctic and Antarctic by airplane. He added uncharted areas to geographical knowledge.*

principal cities of the world. Courageous aviators risked their lives to set long-distance records. In 1919 two British fliers made a 1900-mile flight from Newfoundland to Ireland in sixteen hours and twelve minutes. In 1924 the first flight was made around the world. Two years later Richard Byrd and Floyd Bennett, two Americans, flew over the North Pole, and the next year Charles Lindbergh flew alone from an airfield in Long Island, New York, to Paris. The first flight across the Pacific was made in 1931 in forty-one hours and thirteen minutes, while an American pilot, Wiley Post, in 1933 flew around the world alone in seven days, eighteen hours, and forty-nine and a half minutes. The observations made by these men helped manufacturers improve the airplane until it came into common use.

**Communication** Immediately following the war the radio became a common means of communication for newsmen, entertainers, and governments. In the United States, Great Britain, and many



other countries millions of people listened to the latest news as it poured in over the radio. Then came television. In 1938 radio station WGY Schenectady, New York, began its first regular television program. Radio and television had become a big business, much of it in the United States.

The "magic eye" of radar was used to detect enemy planes in time of war, but it was later put to use to aid planes and ships when traveling in fog or darkness. With radar equipment aviators can tell when they are approaching mountains, tall buildings, or other planes, even though they cannot see them. Other uses are being explored.

1. From what sources did the money come for scientific research?
2. What were some of the discoveries in chemistry in the period following the World War? In medicine?
3. What did Albert Einstein discover?
4. What steps led to the atomic bomb?
5. To what peacetime uses was atomic energy put?
6. What advances were made in the fields of transportation and communication?
7. Why has so much scientific knowledge been put to destructive uses?

## A WORLD-WIDE DEPRESSION FOLLOWS A PERIOD OF PROSPERITY

During World War I normal manufacturing was stopped or slowed down. Much of the energy of the people was spent on making munitions to win the war. When the fighting stopped, factories had to be changed back to making peacetime goods. Merchants had to get their old customers back or find new ones. For a few years following the war, trade was very slow in re-

viving. But business improved in the middle and late twenties and the world seemed to be entering an era of great prosperity. But unsound conditions existed under the seeming prosperity. Farmers in the United States were not prosperous; too many people in America were buying goods on the installment plan; too many



people borrowed money at high rates of interest to invest in stocks about which they knew little; prices of manufactured goods were high; many European countries were living on borrowed money; much of the wealth of Europe had been destroyed by the war. All these conditions were heading the world toward trouble.

**Stock Market Crash of 1929** .. Suddenly, in October, 1929, there was a crash on the Stock Exchange of New York City and great losses of wealth occurred. Immediately a depression hit the world.

People who lost money in that crash had far less to spend. Luxuries were curtailed. Workers were laid off because there were few sales for the products they were making. As people lost their jobs they could buy less and so others were laid off. Farmers sold fewer products, making farm surpluses pile up, and farm prices fell to a new low level.

In these losses the United States did not stand alone. Americans who had been

making loans in foreign countries stopped making them. Many asked their European debtors to pay back loans already made. This added to the financial crisis in other countries, where banks failed. People who could not buy food and pay rent had to be supported by their governments. This, in turn, increased taxes and the cost of governments in all countries rose to new levels.

In their desperation, many governments abandoned co-operation with others and attempted to make their countries self-sufficient. Large signs appeared in the English cities advising the people to "Buy British." Some countries tried to improve their situations by tampering with their money systems and by raising tariffs to keep out foreign goods. Some countries even resorted to printing money with no sound economic backing, but this only resulted in financial collapse. Under such conditions foreign trade was at a standstill. The whole world was in the worst economic depression of modern times.

It was natural under such tensions that nations came to be suspicious of each other. Countries without colonies, especially Germany, began to clamor for them and to demand some of the world's sources of wealth. So did Italy and Japan, whose colonies did not supply quantities of the important modern industrial materials like oil, coal, rubber, and metals. These "have-not" countries believed that if they had control of the sources of raw materials they would be better off. The fear of war grew, and nations, especially the "have-not" nations, began building armies and navies and started talking about war as a method of making them prosperous.

At the same time, the number of unemployed grew in every country. These

millions of helpless victims of poverty looked for leaders who could by some means give them jobs so that they could earn a living. Thus the threat of revolution and war increased as the 1930's passed. The atmosphere was ripe for dictators.

1. What was the condition of business in the 1920's?
2. How does war upset the economy of a country?
3. When and where was the stock market crash? What happened to stocks at that time?
4. Explain how the crash affected prices, employment, trade, agriculture, and banking.
5. Why did the stock market crash in the United States affect other countries?
6. Explain the term "have-not" countries. What did those countries want?

## NEW STYLES DEVELOP IN THE ARTS

It was not only in science and industry that changes came about after the World War. In music, painting, and other arts changes occurred that were often as radical as those brought about by science.

**Music** In music, composers turned from the artificial refinements of the nineteenth century and in many instances went back to the primitive people for their inspiration. Jazz, which was a product of the age and at first not generally accepted, was finally recognized and in some instances was elevated to the concert stage. One of the outstanding writers of this type of music was the American, George Gershwin. Not all modern composers wrote jazz. Edward MacDowell, also an American, depicted sensations and emotions in his delicate compositions. Richard Strauss, a Ger-



Metronome Magazine

*American orchestras create new musical forms.*



The Museum of Modern Art, New York

*Utility and comfort in Eames furniture.*



*A home, "Falling Water," designed by Frank Lloyd Wright.*

man composer, wrote many beautiful operas during the period. Jean Sibelius (sī-bā'li ōs) wrote music characteristic of his native Finland. The great Russian composers Igor Stravinsky (ē gôr strā vīn'skī) and Dimitri Shostakovich (dī mē'trī shōs-tō'kōv ich) were musical geniuses.

**Painting** The art of painting went through many changes which only the serious student of art can follow. There were differences that we can all appreciate, however, between eighteenth- and nineteenth-century painting and modern work. For one thing, modern painters tried to put *movement* into their work. They wanted the viewers of their pictures to feel the wind blowing through trees or the grass; or to seem to be actually walking down a street, or to feel the warmth of the sun. Different artists tried to get these effects by different methods. Like the other arts, painting was not the monopoly of the men of one country. Pablo Picasso (pā'vlō pē-kā'sō) of Spain, Henri Matisse (än rē' mā-tēs') of France, Grant Wood and George Bellows of the United States, and a multitude of others from many countries have contributed to modern painting.

**Architecture** Architecture after the World War was of various types. Some architects fashioned their buildings after the classical style. Such buildings were erected by the government of the United States in Washington, D. C. A fine illustration is the Supreme Court Building. Many new churches were of the Gothic style, including the Cathedral of St. John the Divine in New York City and the Cathedral in Liverpool, England. Many business buildings and apartment houses were built along new designs that utilized steel,

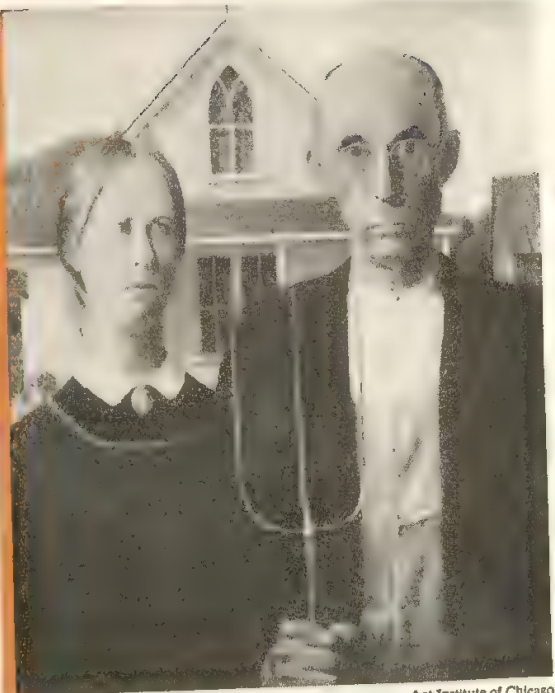


concrete, and glass for large areas. These striking new buildings were designed along horizontal and vertical lines and with an eye to making them as useful as possible. No space was wasted and great attention was paid to lighting and ventilation. Austria, the Scandinavian countries, and Germany built many buildings along these "functional" lines. Walter Gropius of Germany and Frank Lloyd Wright of America were leading architects who designed buildings for the greatest degree of usability.

**Literature** The literature of the twentieth century, like all literature, reflected the age. Eighteenth- and nineteenth-century writers commonly pictured the upper or comfortable middle classes. When they did write of the lower classes, as Charles Dickens did, it was usually with the idea of reform. Those writers used dignified language. The new writers of the twentieth century often selected the sordid and ugly things of life to write about, and they used the language of the people who lived those sordid lives.

Two of the outstanding dramatists of this period were George Bernard Shaw, an Irishman, and Eugene O'Neill, an American. The Englishman, John Galsworthy; the Frenchman, Marcel Proust; the German-born American, Thomas Mann; the Norwegian, Sigrid Undset; the American, Willa Cather; Rabindranath Tagore of India; and Lin Yutang of China were among a multitude of writers who were widely read.

1. How did many twentieth-century artists differ from the artists of the nineteenth century?
2. Who were some of the chief twentieth-century composers?



Art Institute of Chicago

Why did Grant Wood call his painting "American Gothic"?



Castleton China

Dishes are designed along new lines.



Ewing Galloway

The Helsinki, Finland, modern railway station.

3. What did modern artists attempt to add to painting? Who were some of the important twentieth-century artists?
4. What were the characteristics of the new type of architecture?
5. How did twentieth-century literature differ from literature of the nineteenth century? Name some outstanding writers of the period and tell from what country each came.

### FORMAL EDUCATION REACHES MORE PEOPLE

Following World War I educational opportunities increased to a marked degree. In Great Britain elementary schools were improved and children were required to attend school until the age of fourteen. There were vocational and college preparatory schools for those who wished and could afford to attend. In France, in 1925, free elementary schools were established for all children. By 1933 secondary schools, too, were made free in France, but attendance was not compulsory. In the Scandinavian countries stress was placed on schooling and elementary education was universal. Part-time schools for adults were widely attended so that education did not end when boys and girls went to work but continued for many years.

In Asiatic countries, too, educational opportunities expanded rapidly. Just how effective the movement for more schooling was in China and India is hard to say. There were many millions of people in both countries who could not read or write. But in Japan illiteracy was practically wiped out.

In the United States the number of high schools grew by leaps and bounds and a greater variety of subjects was taught. More high school graduates went on to

college, too. The facilities and programs for athletics in high schools and colleges were greatly expanded. There was an increase in vocational education, since much of the training was directed toward earning a living, and most cities established evening schools to give additional training to working people.

### Education under the Dictators

Children in Germany, Russia, Italy, and Japan were not taught to think for themselves, but were trained to follow the leaders. School books were edited by the government, and the lack of a free press made it almost impossible for people in the dictatorships to learn anything except what their governments wanted them to know.

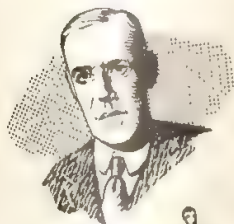
### Darkness and Light

Although the world had experienced the worst war in human history, the period after the war opened with great promise for the future. The League of Nations was the most ambitious undertaking so far in history to insure peace, and the 1920's were years of prosperity in most countries. With the 1930's, however, came the Great Depression. This brought unsettled conditions which encouraged the rise of dictators. They whipped up the spirit of aggressive nationalism and imperialism, which led to another and more terrible world war.

Despite the gloom that settled over the world in the 1930's, there were evidences of progress in civilization. The picture was not all black. Transportation and communication made great advances and medical scientists learned much about the care and healing of the human body. Chemists discovered secrets of nature that made it possible to produce new products for the convenience and health of mankind. Workmen

# II · Milestones Toward Democracy

The suffering occasioned by World War I brought many of the nations of the world nearer to cooperation. Diplomatic relations, international law, congresses, and the International Court of Arbitration had failed to prevent war, although they were steps in the right direction.



The League of Nations was the most ambitious attempt mankind had yet made to establish world peace. Although it failed, it set a pattern for later attempts at world peace organizations.



The Locarno Pacts, the Pact of Paris, and disarmament conferences also demonstrated that man was attempting seriously to prevent war.

Freedom and liberty suffered severely when cruel dictatorships arose in Russia under Stalin, in Italy under Mussolini, and in Germany under Hitler. A strong spirit of nationalism and a powerful military group retarded Japan in its democratic thinking.



Dictators also took control of Spain and Turkey. Countries of Europe were fearful of one another, especially of strong neighboring nations.



In the United States, President Roosevelt's New Deal sought to alleviate suffering brought about by a world-wide depression. The New Deal included an ambitious program of public works and government regulations.

attained more rights in the democratic countries and machines relieved them from much hard labor. Many colonies were on the way to self-government and independence. In the fields of literature, painting, sculpture, music, and architecture, old patterns were thrown off and artists struck out along new and interesting paths.

made along educational lines in each of the following countries between World War I and World War II: Great Britain, France, the Scandinavian Countries, the United States, India, China, Japan, Russia, Germany, and Italy.

2. Sum up the advances made by mankind in the quarter of a century between the beginning of World War I and beginning of World War II.

1. Explain what advances or changes were



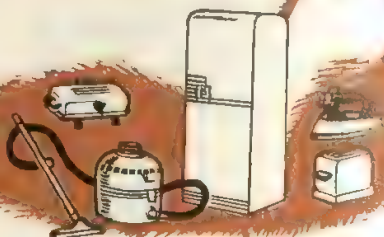
# II · Milestones of Living

Man's ways of living, particularly in America and Europe, were radically changed by World War I. Important developments in science and techniques took place and customs changed.



## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION

The first quarter of the twentieth century saw the appearance of the radio, talking movies, widespread use of the automobile and motor bus, the beginning of popular airplane travel.



Industrial laboratories and private research foundations encouraged and aided research during the period following World War I. The result was a spurt in man's knowledge of chemistry, medicine, physics, and other fields important to our way of life. Electricity was more and more widely applied, until electricity largely replaced steam in many industries.



## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. Which is more important, to work out the principle involved in making an invention or to make the invention?
2. Why has it usually been easier to get gifts from men of wealth to further scientific research than for the study of human relations?
3. Some Asians and Europeans believe that Americans put too much time on machinery

- and gadgets and not enough in the development of the arts. Is this true?
4. What can you as an individual do to improve the relationship between your nation and others?
5. Why was the policy of "self-sufficiency" a poor method of improving the economic conditions of any country during the depression?
6. Is installment buying ever justifiable?

## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION



Along with increased interest in science and technical knowledge came the first modest approaches to the serious study of the social sciences—psychology, sociology, economics, anthropology, and so on. Mankind was becoming aware of the importance of the study of man himself—how he behaves and why—as well as of the physical world about him.



More and more young people, especially in America and Europe, continued their education in high school and college. In many of the countries of Asia, too, schools of higher learning were established.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS



Striking changes came in musical forms following World War I. This was the age of jazz and of other musical compositions that were very different from those of the great

masters of earlier centuries. Painters, too, introduced new techniques into their work. They brought movement into their pictures and tried to express human feelings and sensations.



7. In times of peace is self-sufficiency desirable for a country, or should industries be permitted to buy goods from other countries?

8. Why is it bad for the rest of a country to have one large group, like the farmers, in a bad economic state?

9. Is there any connection between the new sciences and the development of bigger businesses on the one hand and the type of art, architecture, and literature produced?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• atom • fourth dimension • “functional design” • “have-not” countries • relativity • stock market • “wonder drugs” •

#### 2. Places to locate on the map:

• Long Island • North Pole • Schenectady, New York • South Pole •

## 3. Can you identify these persons?

• Roger Bacon • George Bellows • Floyd Bennett • Richard Byrd • Willa Cather • John Dalton • Albert Einstein • Henry Ford • John Galsworthy • George Gershwin • Walter Gropius • Lin Yutang • Charles Lindbergh • Edward MacDowell • Thomas Mann • Henri Matisse • Eugene O'Neill • Pablo Picasso • Wiley Post • Marcel Proust • George Bernard Shaw • Dimitri Shostakovich • Jean Sibelius • Richard Strauss • Igor Stravinsky • Rabindranath Tagore • Sigrid Undset • Grant Wood • Frank Lloyd Wright •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Report to the class on one of the following foundations: Rockefeller, Ford, Carnegie. Be sure to give the purpose of the foundation, the amount of money it was given, and what it has done with it.

2. If you enjoy working in clay, make a model of one of the modern buildings of the world. Show it to the class.

3. Interested pupils may recite or read modern poems to the class. Others read short poems from Shakespeare and one of the early nineteenth-century poets. Compare them in class.

4. If you are interested in chemistry or medicine as your life's work, find out the requirements in education and personality.

5. What are the leading businesses or occupations of your community? Write the list on the blackboard.

## III. Guidance

Ask your guidance counsellor to talk to the class on the opportunities for self-help in going to college; scholarship opportunities, etc.

## IV. For the Bulletin Board

Make a collection of pictures of one of the following for the bulletin board: architecture, painting, or sculpture of the twentieth century. Under each picture give the name of the work, the name and nationality of the artist.

CARR, ALBERT H. Z., *Men of Power*, The Viking Press, 1940

*Well-told biographies of the dictators.*

EATON, JEANETTE, *Gandhi, Fighter without a Sword*, William Morrow & Co., 1950

*The story of Gandhi's student days and his labors in freeing India from the English.*

EWEN, DAVID, *Book of Modern Composers*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1950

*Brief biographies of thirty-one modern composers.*

GARLAND, JOSEPH, *Story of Medicine*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1949

HACKETT, FRANCIS, *I Chose Denmark*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1940

*The author writes about the country of his adoption.*

HATCH, ALDEN, *Woodrow Wilson: a Biography for Young People*, Henry Holt & Co., 1947

HAYES, C. J. H., *Brief History of the Great War*, The Macmillan Co., 1920

*A well-written history of the First World War.*

HITCHCOCK, EDWARD B., *I Built a Temple for Peace*, Harper & Brothers, 1940

*The life story of the great statesman Eduard Beneš.*

JAFFE, BERNARD, *Crucibles: The Story of Chemistry*, Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1948

*The story of chemistry and the great men in that field.*

KELLY, ERIC PHILBROOK, *Land of the Polish People*, J. B. Lippincott Co., 1943

*Simply and sympathetically told.*

NATHAN, ROBERT, *One More Spring*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1933

*A novel dealing with the depression in the United States.*

NORDHOFF, CHARLES B., *Falcons of France*, Little, Brown & Co., 1929

*A story of the Lafayette Flying Corps.*

RAMA RAU, SANTHA, *Home to India*, Harper & Brothers, 1945

*A young Indian girl returns to India after her education in England and sees her country in a new light.*

THOMAS, LOWELL, *Count Luckner, the Sea Devil*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1927

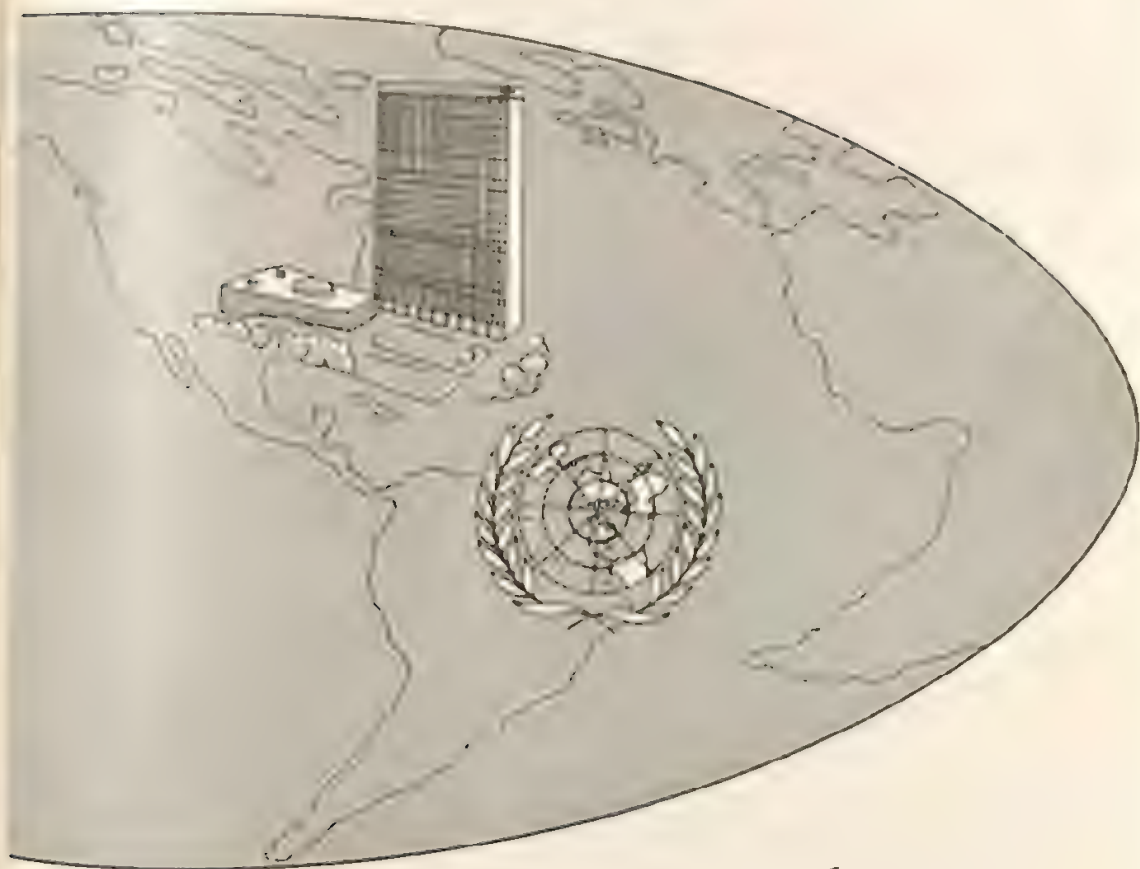
*The exciting account of a German sea raider.*

WALN, NORA, *Reaching for the Stars*, Little Brown & Co., 1939

*What the author saw in Germany between 1934-1938.*



*Mankind continues*



*the quest  
for truth and freedom*



## *A Warring World in Search of*

# PEACE

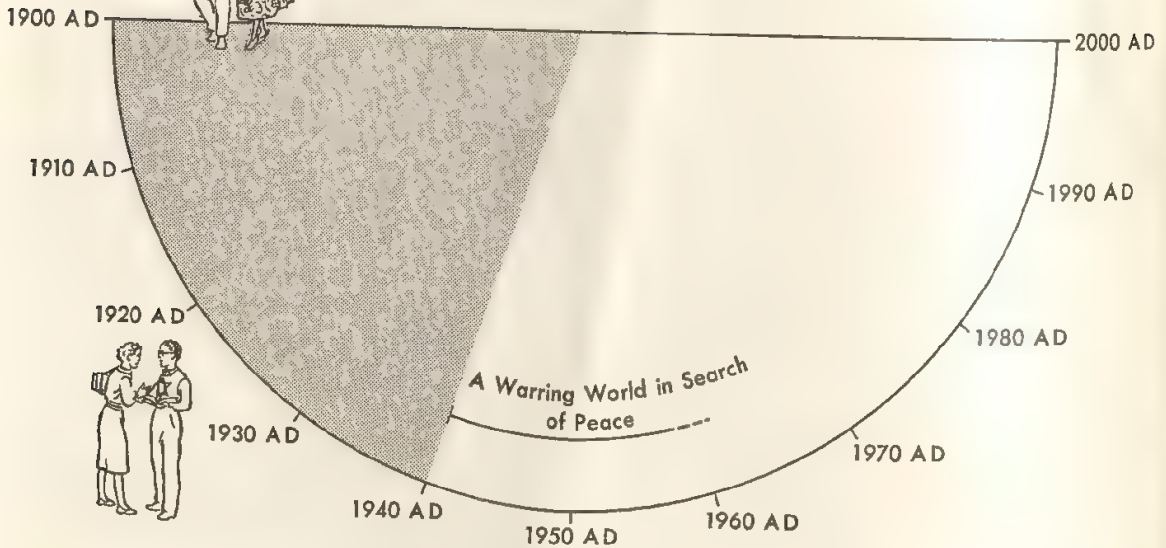
For two decades before 1939 the peoples of the world had been hopeful that the great war of 1914-1918 had been a war to end all wars. Individuals and nations had made various proposals for guaranteeing peace. But they wanted a peace that would encourage growth of the democratic way of life. The League of Nations, the World Court, disarmament conferences, neutrality legislation, the Locarno Pacts, and the Paris Pact were the particular measures taken to carry out those ideals of peace and democracy.

But for one reason or another mankind was not free from war, and democracy did not thrive in all parts of the world. New explosions in 1939 wrecked whatever chances there were of strengthening peace and democracy and the world was plunged into a second world war. The issue seemed to be that of fascism versus freedom. Totalitarian states were determined to bring the free nations into subjection.

While the war was being waged, the leaders of the free nations seriously studied the causes of the conflict and worked out proposals for building a better world. When the fighting ceased, a United Nations Organization for dealing with international problems and preventing aggression was soon put into operation. Special agencies for handling particular problems were also set up, but the world's troubles were too deep-seated to be cured immediately.

Within the United Nations the victors of World War II could not agree on how the world should be organized or how its difficulties should be handled. Suspicion, jealousy, and fear led the nations of the world to align themselves into two camps behind the two major powers, the United States and the Soviet Union. The Western World came to regard the new conflict as that of aggressive communism against democracy. Some leaders believed that this "cold war," as it was called, could be settled only by a change in the leadership and policy of the Soviet Union, or by the willingness of free people to prepare for a third world war.







## *A Deadlier War Encircles the Globe*

**T**he world was still suffering from the effects of World War I when World War II began. The war was not unexpected by students of world affairs. In fact, events that had been piling up for several years led to the first hostilities on September 1, 1939.

The democratic nations of the world had not co-operated in the League of Nations as Woodrow Wilson had hoped they would. Each democracy looked for security in its own way and in terms of its own interests. The refusal of the United States to join the League of Nations further weakened that body. This weakened the defenses of all and led the dictators to feel that they were free to attack their neighbors one at a time without hindrance.

### **UNCHECKED AGGRESSION LEADS TO WORLD WAR II**

The dictatorships under the leadership of the Japanese warlords, Adolf Hitler, and Benito Mussolini had thrown aside any regard for morality among nations. They attacked weaker states in violation of pledges, treaties, and international law. The free nations were slow to check them.

**Japan vs. China** The series of events leading to World War II began with Japan's attack upon Manchuria in

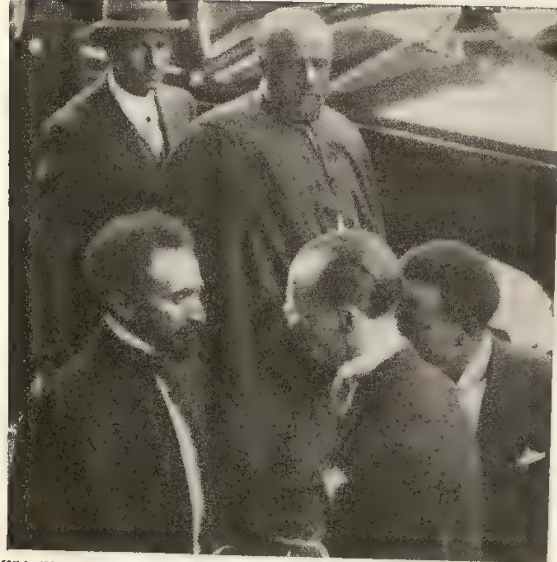
1931. This was the result of an incident on the Japanese-dominated railroad there, where Japanese citizens were killed. Japan blamed it on the inability of China to keep law and order. Japan went into Manchuria "to restore order" and ended by creating a puppet state under her control. This state she called Manchukuo. The League of Nations condemned her as an aggressor but took no steps against her. Japan's reply was to withdraw from the League.

### **Hitler vs. the Treaty of Versailles**

In 1935 Adolf Hitler felt that Germany was strong enough to defy the democracies. He denounced the Versailles Treaty which forbade Germany to rearm and announced that Germany had built up an air force and introduced compulsory military training.

### **Mussolini vs. Ethiopia**

Mussolini was the next offender against peace. In 1935 he began a conquest of the independent nation of Ethiopia in Africa. This unfortunate country was defenseless against Italian air raids, which wiped out whole villages of natives. In vain their emperor, Haile Selassie (hī'lē se lās'ē), appealed to the League of Nations. The League attempted to impose economic sanctions against Italy. These were not very effective for Italy had been building up a store of munitions. Be-



Wide World

*Haile Selassie, "King of the kings of Ethiopia, Lion of Judah, the Elect of God," traces his ancestry back to the Queen of Sheba.*

sides, France's prime minister, Pierre Laval, had secretly given his consent to the attack on Ethiopia. Again the League proved ineffective, and by the summer of 1936 Italy had taken Ethiopia.

**Hitler in the Rhineland** The next move was Hitler's. He denounced the Locarno Treaties and sent his soldiers into the Rhineland, which had been demilitarized by the Treaty of Versailles.

**Dictators and the Spanish Civil War** Hitler and Mussolini drew near to each other, since they had similar ideas of government and similar aims. These aims were demonstrated in a civil war that broke out in Spain in 1936. Immediately the timid democracies of France and Great Britain declared their neutrality. Russia sent some aid to the Loyalists who were in power in the Spanish Republic, but Russia was in no position to offer effective aid and her help raised the cry of "communism!" against the Loyalists. The United States placed an em-

bargo on the shipment of weapons to both sides, but the Spanish Civil War served as a testing ground for the new and deadly military weapons that Germany and Italy sent to Franco, the Spanish leader of the forces attacking the Republic. The war dragged on until the spring of 1939. Franco then established a fascist state, with himself as dictator. The Spanish war overthrew one more republic, won an ally for Hitler and Mussolini, and gave them added prestige.

**Japan in China** In the meantime Japan had completed her conquest of Manchuria and was now ready to attack China proper. She felt safe in doing this, for British and French leaders were preoccupied watching Italy expand into Ethiopia and the Germans and Italians helping Franco in Spain. Russia was busy at home with economic and social changes and not ready to challenge Japanese aggression. The United States was isolationist.

In 1937 Japan struck at China without declaring war. Her aim was to control the seaports, chief cities, railroads, and roads of that country. The Chinese armies were poorly trained and poorly provisioned, but the Chinese people showed heroism in the face of the enemy. Chiang Kai-shek (jē āng kī shēk') retreated slowly to the interior with his armies and his government. They set up their headquarters at Chungking far up the Yangtze (yǎng'sē) River. A few supplies from Britain, the United States, and more from Russia were not enough to help them fight effectively. The size of China, however, was in her favor. The country is so large that a foreign army cannot occupy the whole country. By 1939, nevertheless, Japan controlled all the coastal plain and the roadways leading to the interior.



**Alliances** The democracies sat by denouncing all these aggressions but doing nothing about them. This made the dictators all the more daring. They saw the military weaknesses of the democratic nations and their hatred of war, and so they openly talked of world domination. In 1936 an alliance between Germany and Italy was formed to this end. This was called the Rome-Berlin Axis. Then an anti-Communist alliance was formed which included Japan, Italy, Germany, Spain, and Hungary. The democratic answer to this move was one of appeasement.

**Hitler vs. Austria** One of Hitler's means of appealing to his people was his cry for united German followers. His spies and "tourists" went into surrounding countries to spread the news of what great things Hitler had done for Germany. He had, for example, torn up the Versailles Treaty; he had provided employment for all Germans. These spies also pointed out how much more the Germans could do if all the Germans living in foreign countries could be united with the Fatherland. As a result of these activities, Nazi parties sprang up in countries wherever people of German ancestry lived.

When Hitler's war machine was running in high gear, he attacked his neighbors. A large Nazi party existed in Austria. In 1934 an attempt to set up a Nazi government there had resulted in the assassination of the president but not in overthrowing the Republic. By the spring of 1938 Hitler felt that his prestige was great enough for him to take over Austria. In March, 1938, he rode into Vienna at the head of his army. Austria, without any resistance on her part, was proclaimed a part of the Third Reich. England and France protested but did not act.

**Hitler vs. Czechoslovakia** Hitler next turned to Czechoslovakia, the only democratic country of Eastern Europe. In the western part of the country there was the Sudetenland, a district of strategic mountains. But there were three million Germans living in that mountainous district who were subject to the Czechs. Here was another Nazi party. Hitler's henchmen stirred up discontent among them and demanded that they be made a part of Germany. This would take the mountain defenses from the Czechs and leave them open to attack. At last Britain and France were stirred. The British prime minister, Neville Chamberlain, and the French premier, Édouard Daladier (ā dwār dā lā'dyā), met Hitler and Mussolini at Munich in September, 1938. Hoping to prevent war, they gave this Sudetenland to Germany. This demand, Hitler declared,



would be his last. Now the people of Europe could settle down to peace. The next spring, however, Hitler divided the rest of Czechoslovakia between Hungary and Germany. Again Hitler declared that he had no more territorial demands. But shortly

afterward he took Danzig and threatened to take the Polish Corridor. At the same time Mussolini conquered Albania.

### Attitude in the Democracies

During all these attacks upon peaceful neighbors the democratic nations seemed to be powerless. There were a few voices calling out for action. President Franklin D. Roosevelt, in a speech in Chicago in 1937 said, "There must be recognition of the fact that national morality is as vital as private morality." He said that the aggressors among nations should be quarantined. This speech was sharply criticized. It seemed that the American public was not ready to go along with any strong stand against the dictators. The chief voice against them was that of Winston Churchill of Great Britain who urged military preparedness. His urging also fell on deaf ears. The democracies were not aroused, and the dictators continued on their way.

1. What weaknesses in co-operative efforts were evident among the nations?
2. Why did Japan attack Manchuria?
3. What action did Hitler take in violation of the Versailles Treaty?
4. Tell about Italy's attack upon Ethiopia.
5. What use did Hitler and Mussolini make of the Civil War in Spain? What attitude did France and Great Britain take toward it? Russia? the United States?
6. Why did Japan feel safe in attacking China in 1937? How successful was she there?
7. What was the Rome-Berlin Axis? the Anti-Communist Alliance?
8. Why did Hitler send spies and "tourists" into neighboring countries?
9. Under what circumstances did Hitler take Austria?
10. What was the Munich Agreement?

## WORLD WAR II BEGINS

There seemed no limit to the aggression of the dictators when it appeared certain that their next step was to attack Poland. France and Britain became aroused and made an agreement with Poland to come to her aid if she were attacked by Germany. They also tried to get Russia, Rumania, Turkey, and Greece to enter the alliance. While negotiations were in progress, in August, 1939, Stalin and Hitler astonished the world by a nonaggression pact. Thus, having protected himself against attack by Russia, Hitler struck at Poland, September 1, 1939, without a declaration of war.

**Defeat of Poland** After the attack upon Poland, which the Poles resisted, Britain and France declared war against Germany. Poland was not prepared for war against a modern army and France and Britain had no means of giving her effective aid. It took only four weeks for Hitler to defeat Poland. Russia, according to her agreement with Hitler, stepped in to take the eastern half of the country. So Poland was again partitioned.

**"Phony War"** During the winter of 1939-1940 fighting was at a standstill. The *blitzkrieg*, or "lightning war," was over for the time being. People began to talk of the "phony" war between Germany and the Western powers. In the east, meantime, Russia annexed Lithuania, Estonia, and Latvia and demanded land from Finland. When Finland resisted, she was attacked and, despite gallant resistance, had to give up the land. France and Britain expected the war to end without much fighting on their part, but the "phony" war came to an abrupt end with the sudden renewal of Hitler's *blitzkrieg*.

**Defeat of the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, and Norway** Without warning or grievance, in the spring of 1940 Hitler turned westward and attacked the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, and Norway. His excuse was that he was protecting them from British attack. It was only an excuse, for there was never any evidence that the British had any intention of attacking them or any other neutral country. Denmark did not resist, but the other countries did and were crushed with desperate swiftness. The Belgian king soon surrendered, but the Dutch and Norwegian governments fled to Britain, where they set to work to aid in the fight. The Norwegian merchant marine was of great aid.

**Attack on France** After subjugating and occupying the small countries, Hitler turned to France. France had placed her reliance in the Maginot (mā zhē nō') (fortifications along France's eastern border) line, but the Germans outflanked it when the sudden surrender of

Belgium left the northern end unprotected. In this way Hitler drove a wedge between the British armies which had been sent to aid France, and the French armies.

**Dunkerque** The British were forced to retreat to Dunkerque (dūn'kērk) on the French coast. Their plight was desperate. The new prime minister, Winston Churchill, who had succeeded Neville Chamberlain, inspired the British people to fight on. The British public responded with great heroism. Every boat that could be manned was sent across the English Channel to rescue the retreating army. For five days, under German bombardment from land and air, these boats plied between Britain and France. The Dover Strait was strewn with wrecked boats and the French shore with dead bodies. The British succeeded, however, in getting two thirds of their forces home. Practically all the weapons England had were left behind on the beach at Dunkerque. The island seemed defenseless.

**Defeat of France** France, left without the aid of the British armies, fell

*335,000 British and French soldiers were snatched from the beaches at Dunkerque. Churchill wrote of England's position after that retreat, "Never before was a nation so naked before her enemies."*

Wide World





into chaos. She was defeated in a few short weeks. In his attack on France, Hitler was aided by his alliance with Mussolini. Although Italy did not enter the war until she saw that France was mortally wounded, Italy served as a threat and kept a large part of both the British and French fleets and armies inactive in the Mediterranean. On June 10, Mussolini, wanting to get his share of the spoils of France, declared war on her. On June 14 the Germans entered Paris, which the French had declared an open city to prevent its being destroyed. On June 22 the aged Petain (pā tăn'), the hero of World War I, signed an armistice with Germany. He was left as head of the French government with a capital at Vichy under the domination of the Germans. Now the Germans held all of

northern France. The great French army that was supposed to be one of the best in the world was defeated before most of it had even seen battle.

**The Battle of Britain** Britain now stood alone. Without weapons or the means of making them, and without sufficient manpower, she stood defiantly. She took over the French ships that were in her ports and blasted those at Oran in North Africa that refused to co-operate with her. She needed ships badly because the German submarines had taken a heavy toll of hers. At the same time the increasing Japanese aggression in the Orient could not be checked without more British ships, and the Italians were overrunning parts of the British possessions in East Africa.



The world expected the next act of the tragedy to be the invasion of Great Britain. When he became prime minister, Winston Churchill had told the British people that he had nothing to offer them but "blood, toil, tears and sweat." His warning came true. During the summer of 1940 German airplanes rained tons of bombs on London and other cities and on British ports. The small British air force, the RAF, took a great toll of German planes and pilots. In Churchill's words, "Never did so many owe so much to so few." The Germans were never able to cross the English Channel to invade England with land armies.



*Women who went to work in defense plants and related industries played a big part in the war. This changed home life in America, in some cases permanently.*

## HITLER IN GREECE AND NORTH AFRICA

It was not only at home that the British had troubles. Italy struck at Greece in October, 1940. The Greeks were more than a match for the Italians, and Hitler had to come to Italy's aid. Hitler had gained frightened Rumania, Hungary, and Yugoslavia as allies. Then he moved into Greece. The British troops aiding the Greeks had to retreat to Crete, and then they lost even that. The Germans, in the spring of 1941, under General Erwin Rommel pushed eastward through North Africa. British General Wavell was forced back into Egypt, and the Suez Canal was in danger.

## A LULL IN THE WAR

Then came a lull on the part of the Germans while Hitler made other plans. During the lull the forces of South Africa took Ethiopia from Italy and the British navy smashed the Italian navy in the Mediterranean. Britain took advantage of the lull to prepare for the next Axis move.

1. What agreement did Great Britain and France make with Poland?
2. Why did Hitler and Stalin sign a nonaggression pact in August, 1939?
3. Tell about the defeat of Poland.
4. What action did Russia take against her neighbors?
5. What was meant by a *blitzkrieg* war?
6. Which Western neutrals did Hitler attack? Why? With what results?
7. What was the outcome of Hitler's attack on France?
8. Who became prime minister of Great Britain?
9. Tell the story of the rescue from Dunkerque.
10. After the retreat from Dunkerque what was the situation of Britain?
11. What part did Petain play in the fate of France?
12. What was the "battle of Britain"?

## THE WAR SPREADS

**Germany vs. Russia** Although Hitler and Stalin had signed a nonaggression pact, Hitler feared Stalin. He had gone out of his way before the pact to denounce

Stalin and communism in the strongest language. Russia might not forget! On June 22, 1941, again without warning or apparent cause, Germany attacked Russia. Week by week the Russians were forced to retreat, but the Germans did not succeed in destroying the Russian armies. These armies showed a surprising amount of fighting power. When the severe Russian winter set in, the Germans had not defeated their foes, though they had pushed to the very gates of Russian cities.

The Soviets suffered greatly. Thousands of square miles of fertile land were overrun and thousands of people, both civilians and military persons, were killed. Hundreds of towns were destroyed, and factories, dams, and power plants were demolished, but the Russians were not defeated.

### **Aid to Britain from America**

Hitler knew that if Britain were to be destroyed she must be cut off from her dominions, all of which (except Eire) came to her aid in the war. German submarines took a frightful toll of English shipping in the Atlantic. It seemed for a time that she might be starved out. Germany by attacking her in North Africa had struck at her lifeline to India and Australia.

Here the aid from the United States played a part. From the beginning of the war President Roosevelt and the vast majority of the American people had been in sympathy with the British cause. The American Neutrality Law, however, forbade sending materials of war to either side in a conflict if the President declared that a state of war existed. After Hitler crushed defenseless Poland, this law was amended to permit nations to come to the United States, pay cash for materials, and carry them home. This "cash and carry"

plan worked so long as Britain had both the money and ships to get the materials. When it was evident that the plan alone was not enough to help her, Congress passed the Lend-Lease Act, appropriating seven billion dollars to make munitions to be "loaned" or "leased" to powers fighting the Axis, if the welfare of those nations seemed important to our safety. Later the President ordered the United States Navy to patrol the seas approximately half way across the ocean to spot German submarines and raiders.

### **AN ATTACK ON PEARL HARBOR BRINGS THE UNITED STATES INTO THE WAR**

Germany now succeeded in getting another partner into the war. In October, 1941, the fascist-minded Hideki Tojo (hě' dē kē tō jō) became prime minister of Japan. He saw an opportunity to get control of Asia while the other powers were busy in the Atlantic. Japan attacked Pearl Harbor in Hawaii on December 7, 1941. This act brought a prompt vote of war from the United States Congress. A few days later Germany and Italy declared war on the United States. Congress answered by a unanimous vote for war against both nations within a few hours. Thus the train of events that started in Europe had embroiled the whole world in war, the deadliest and costliest war in the world's history.

### **The Fall of the Philippines**

The opening of 1942 looked bleak for the Allied countries. The Germans were in control of North Africa as far east as El Alamein (ě'l'āl ā măn'). While the Russians had opened an offensive and retaken Rostov, the Germans held firm in Russia and were





Wide World

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still pounding at the gates of Leningrad. It was in the Far East that the enemy made the biggest gains, however. The Japanese had easily swept over the Philippines, and the small American force there, with no chance of outside aid, was crowded on to the fortified island of Corregidor. Finally, after an heroic stand there, General Jonathan M. Wainwright was forced to surrender on May 6, 1942. The Philippines were now in Japanese hands.

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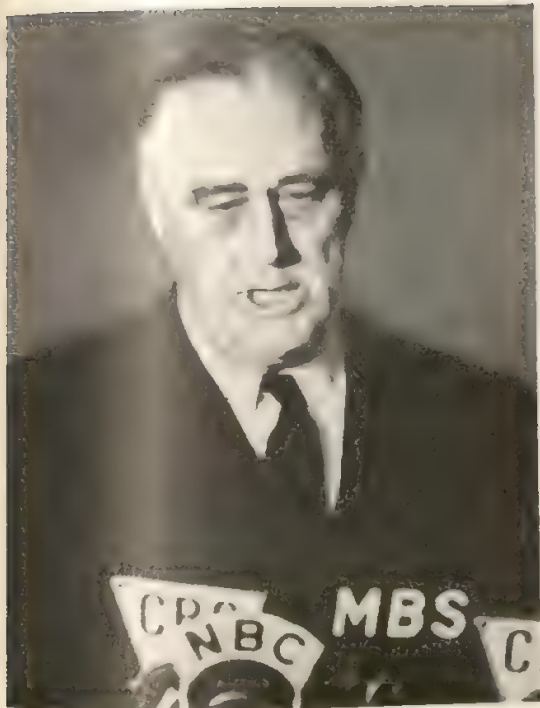
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### In North Africa

In the meantime, American factories were turning out weapons in an almost miraculous fashion. As supply stocks were built up under Lend-Lease plans, the Allies were able to take the offensive in late 1942.

In November General Harold Alexander and Field Marshal Bernard Montgomery, with the British Eighth Army, routed the German General Rommel in a fierce tank battle and started driving the Germans westward. On November 7 an American and British expeditionary force in some 800 vessels was landed in North Africa. This feat took the enemy by complete surprise. After a fight with the Vichy French, the Allies quickly overran Algiers and took Tunisia. The Frenchman, Admiral Jean Darlan, deserted Hitler and was made governor of French North Africa. Now Rommel was under pressure from both the east and the west. He was pushed out of Africa and the Allies drove him on through Sicily and into Italy. The Allies were again in Europe.

### In Europe

The Allies now had

the offensive, although the battles were very bitter. Slowly Russia pushed the Germans back out of Russia, Poland, and the Balkans. Mussolini had been forced out of the premiership of Italy by the King in July, 1943. In September, British and American troops, aided by men from most of the conquered countries, slowly fought their way up the boot of Italy and Italy surrendered unconditionally. Even as she did so, Germany took over Italy and the bloody fight went on. Month after month the Allies pressed forward under the leadership of General Mark Clark, averaging less than a mile a day.

All the while the air forces stationed in Britain kept increasing their attacks on Germany. Factories, railroad centers, and the city of Berlin in particular were attacked time and time again with smashing blows.

### Under Unified Command

The Allied forces had been placed under the supreme command of two Americans, General Dwight D. Eisenhower in the European theater of operations and General Douglas MacArthur in the Asiatic theater. This con-

solidation of forces proved a good thing. An over-all plan was laid for each theater, with the forces of the different nations each playing their part. The army, navy, and air force were also linked in the united effort.

**Invasion of France** Great plans were under way for the invasion of France from Great Britain. President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill had promised Stalin at a conference in Teheran (tā hēr ān') that they would open a second front in Western Europe. The Russians kept clamoring for such a front and openly criticized in their press the slowness of their allies. The massing of the necessary men and material for such a stupendous operation had been going on for two years. General Eisenhower was the man in charge of the plan, although much of the detailed work was done by General Montgomery of Great Britain. Besides these two, thousands of others worked on the plan, most of whom did not know just what it was to be.

In the early hours of June 6, 1944, the air force had silenced most of the coastal defenses. Then the invasion of France started, backed by four thousand boats and by eleven thousand planes. This was the long-awaited D-day. Paratroopers landed behind the German lines as the frontal attack came from the beaches. Having established a beach-head, troops were poured in and the front expanded. The battles were won at great cost to the Allied troops, but slowly they moved forward toward Paris.

Both British and American forces played their part in the battle for France and Germany, and they were gallantly supported by soldiers from all the Allied countries. Sir Arthur Tedder was second in command of the forces. The 21st Army Group, made up

of British and Canadian forces, was under Field Marshal Montgomery. Marshal Sir Arthur Harris and General Carl Spaatz commanded the air forces. The American 12th Army Group was commanded by General Omar N. Bradley. The war was won by the co-operation of all of them, and others.

In the meantime, in August, 1944, another Allied landing was made in southern France under the command of General Alexander Patch. The army moved swiftly up the Rhone River Valley. Before long they had cleared the Germans out of France and the Allies had a continuous front against Germany.

1. Who were the supreme commanders of the Allied forces in the Pacific and Atlantic theaters of war?
2. Which other generals played conspicuous parts?
3. Where was the first Allied offensive in the Pacific theater?
4. Where was the first Allied offensive in the West? Tell the story of the offensive there.
5. Who was Rommel? Admiral Darlan?
6. What territory did the Russians retake?
7. Where was the first Allied offensive in Europe? Why was the fight there such a bitter one?
8. Where did the great Allied invasion take place? When? Why was it a remarkable feat?
9. Explain what was meant by D-Day.
10. Where was the third invasion made by the Allies?

## VICTORIES COME AT LAST

**V-E Day** Much hard fighting lay ahead, but the Germans were being defeated everywhere. The Russians moved in according to plan and took Berlin, while

the Allies of the West overran western Germany. Finally on May 8—V-E Day—Germany surrendered unconditionally. Hitler perished in the final siege of Berlin. Two months before the final victory over Germany, the people of the United States and Europe had been plunged into mourning by the sudden death of President Roosevelt. He had not lived to see the final victory over the forces that would have destroyed freedom. He did know that the end of those forces was in sight.

**War in the Pacific** The complete victory over the Nazis permitted concentration of Allied forces against Japan. The naval forces under Admiral Chester W. Nimitz (nīm'itz) and the marines under General A. A. Vandegrift (văn'dē grift) struck bravely. The Indians had taken Malaya in March, while Americans moved northward by an "island-hopping" method. This meant that after taking one island, the men jumped over several intervening islands and took another, leaving the Japanese forces on these islands without means of getting supplies. Thus the troops directed by General MacArthur had worked their way back to the Philippines by a bloody

*American troops, carrying their wounded buddies, were forced by the enemy to retreat for many miles without rest when Bataan was lost. Many of them died on the "Bataan Death March."*

path:—Guadalcanal, Rabaul (rā boul'), Kwajalein (kwōj'á lin), Eniwetok (ě nē'wě tōk), Saipan (sī pǎn'), Palau (pá'lō), and Leyte (lā'tā).

A great sea battle was fought in October, 1944. Japan had hoped to cripple the United States Pacific fleets at that time, but instead, the United States gave a crippling blow to the Japanese navy.

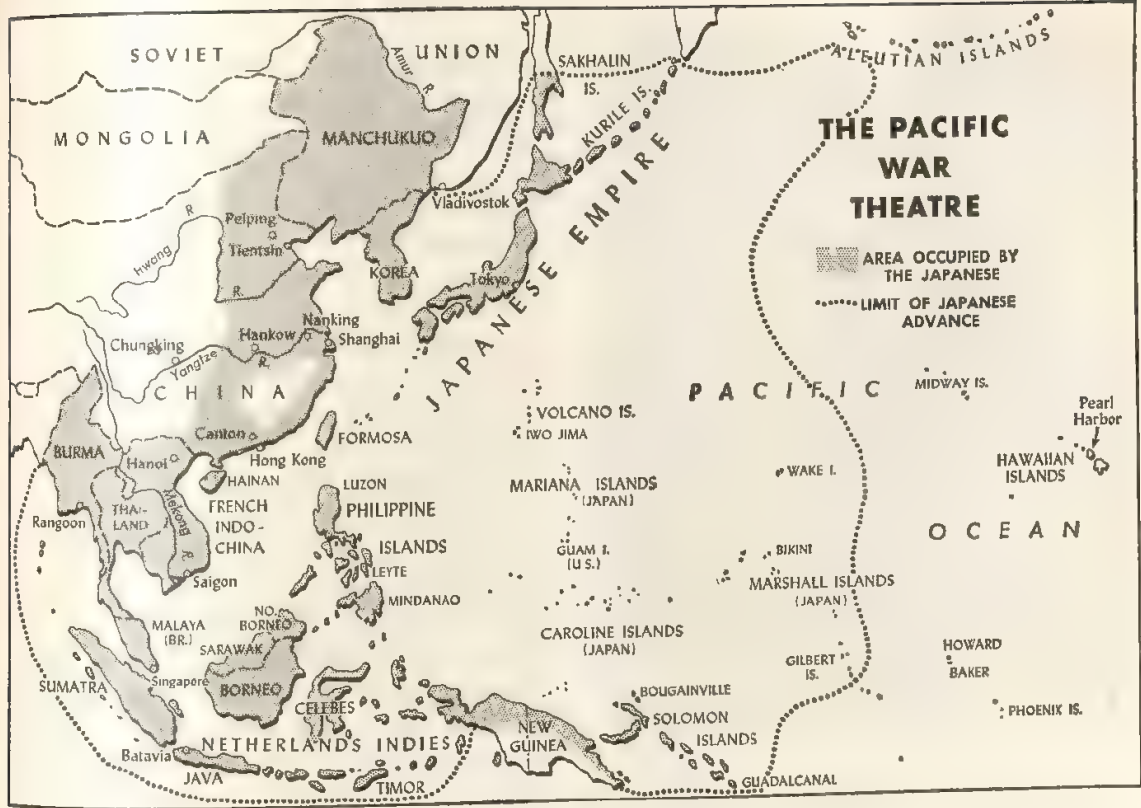
**The Atom Bomb** After that, the British and American fleets harassed Japan's homeland. On July 10, 1945, a thousand-plane air raid swept Tokyo. On August 6, the world was stunned by the news that the first atomic bomb had been dropped on Hiroshima (hēr ō shē'má). It leveled three fifths of that city of nearly 350,000 people. At Yalta, Russia had agreed to declare war on Japan, and in order to do so before the war ended, she entered the war on August 8. On the next day the second atomic bomb fell. This time Nagasaki (nā gá sǎ'kē) was hit. The following day Tokyo offered to surrender.

**V-J Day** It was not until September 2 that terms were signed on an American battleship, U.S.S. *Missouri*, in

Wide World







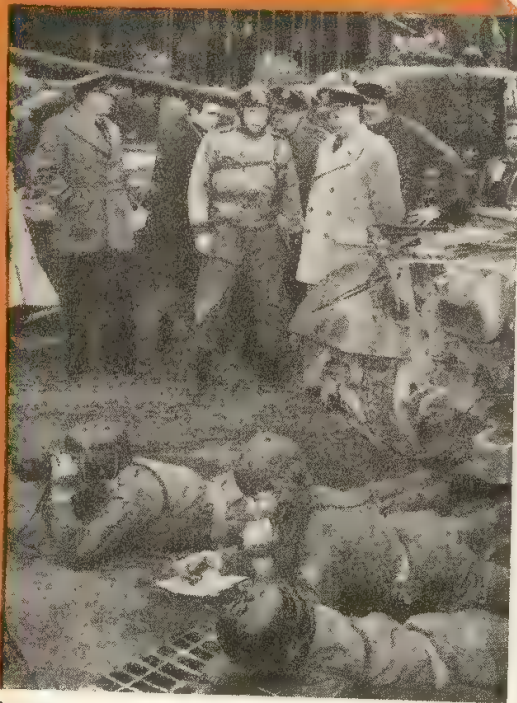
Tokyo Bay. By that time Russia had overrun Manchuria and part of Korea, the Japanese part of Sakhalin (sak'á lēn) Island, and some of the Kuriles (kōō'rēl). Most of Japan's conquered island empire was in the hands of the Americans, while the French, British, and Dutch had won back most of their lost possessions. The war that had begun six years before was now over.

### ENORMOUS COST OF THE WAR

World War II, more than any previous war, left widespread destruction and suffering in its wake. Devastated lands and war-time needs had upset agricultural and industrial production. The scarcity of materials to meet the basic needs of food, clothing, and shelter caused sickness, suffering, and

death. The war greatly weakened numerous governments and some broke down entirely. The disappearance of law and order brought chaos. Billions of dollars worth of property had been lost. Berlin was largely destroyed. The center of London was badly damaged, and about forty per cent of Tokyo was wiped out. Countless other cities and villages of France, Holland, Poland, Italy, England, Belgium, and China were destroyed.

The war was costly in lives, too. The United States had about 530,000 killed, missing, and wounded. The British Commonwealth casualties numbered over 1,424,600. The Russians, French, Chinese, and Germans sustained losses many times as heavy as those of the United States. But figures cannot tell the story of the suffering,



Associated Press

*General Eisenhower visits the Second Armored Cavalry Regiment in Germany. Tank crews are engaged in firing practice.*

poverty, and hunger caused by the most horrible war in all history.

One of the most tragic results of the war was the great number of refugees who had lost their homes and, many of them, their native homelands. Thousands of them were kept in camps in Western Europe during the latter days of the war and after it was over. Many were children whose parents had died or who did not know who they were or from where they had come. Others wanted to escape from Europe with its repeated persecutions. Eventually most of these persons found homes in new countries.

**UNRRA** To aid the starving and freezing people of Europe and China the United Nations Relief and Rehabilitation Administration (UNRRA) was set up. This organization fed, housed, and clothed mil-

lions of people in the war-torn countries of the world. It was meant to be a temporary relief organization. Private organizations took up where it ended in 1946, although certain of its functions were carried out by the American-sponsored Marshall Plan in 1947.

**Trials of War Criminals** The war left many political problems to be worked out. During the war the Allies had warned the Nazis repeatedly that their leaders would be held responsible for plunging the world into war and for pursuing such beastly policies. More than a score of the German leaders were brought to trial before an international military tribunal in Nuremberg, Germany. Here the awful stories of torture and mass murders were recounted. Eleven of the men were sentenced as "war criminals" to die by hanging, three were acquitted, and the rest were given long prison sentences. The new local governments in Germany meted out punishment to many more.

Later, similar trials were held for nearly thirty Japanese war criminals. Seven were executed while others were given long prison sentences. The Allies hoped that this would set a precedent that would discourage men in the future from starting wars.

**Treaties with Minor Powers** It is customary for peace treaties to be worked out with each defeated nation by the victors in war. The Allies at the end of World War II conferred on the terms of peace for Italy, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Finland. Since the United States had never been at war with Finland, it did not participate in making that treaty. Italy lost some territory to France and Yugoslavia. Trieste became a free city under the United Nations.

Italy was to pay large reparations, most of which went to Russia, Yugoslavia, and Greece. Limits were put on the size of the Italian army, navy, and air force. The Foreign Ministers of the United States, Great Britain, the Soviet Union, and France were to settle the question of Italy's colonies. Accordingly, the Dodecanese (dō dēk'ēn ēz) Islands were ceded to Greece. They could not agree on the disposition of the other colonies and turned the matter over to the United Nations General Assembly. The General Assembly decided to give Libya its independence by January, 1952. Italian Somaliland was to be placed under the Trusteeship Council of the United Nations, with Italy to act as trustee until 1960. Eritrea was under British occupation for a time, and then became a part of Ethiopia, thus giving her an entrance to the Red Sea.

Hungary and Rumania lost some territory to their neighbors; and both were charged huge reparations, most of which were to be collected by Russia. The military forces of both countries were to be limited. Bulgaria and Finland were given similar treaties; but Bulgaria did not lose any land.

**Japanese Treaty** The major peace treaties with Germany, Austria, and Japan were the subject of considerable controversy among the big powers. The amount and type of reparations was one issue. The nature of the new government and its right to rearm was another question. The Western Powers and Russia distrusted each other and were unable to agree upon terms of peace. They were also unwilling to withdraw their armies of occupation from these conquered countries. As a result, several years have elapsed with no peace treaties drawn up for Germany or Austria.

A treaty with Japan was finally signed in

San Francisco on September 8, 1951, after eleven months of discussion among the Allied powers. John Foster Dulles of the United States was the chairman of the group that drew up the treaty. Forty-nine countries that had been at war with Japan signed the treaty. Russia, Czechoslovakia, Poland, and Burma refused to sign, and India refused to attend the conference because she did not like the treaty. However, India made a separate peace with Japan. No nations were entirely satisfied with the peace settlement because it was a compromise. It was something new in treaties, not one to punish the Japanese people, but one "to restore our former enemy to the community of peaceful nations."

By the treaty, Japan gave up all claim to the empire she had won by conquest, beginning with her war with China in 1894-1895. She accepted the obligations set up in the United Nations Charter to refrain from force in her international relations. On the other hand, the treaty stated that Japan had the right to arm herself for protection.

The same day, Japan and the United States signed another treaty permitting United States forces to be stationed in Japan until she would be able to protect herself. The peace treaty was designed to give Japan back her sovereignty and the treaty with the United States gave her protection. For one of the defeated powers, the war was over.

1. When and what was V-E Day?
2. What happened to Hitler?
3. What was meant by "island hopping"?
4. Tell briefly the steps taken to victory over Japan.
5. Why was August 6, 1945, an important day in history?
6. When and where were the terms of surrender signed by Japan?



7. What part did Russia play in the war against Japan?
8. Quote statistics to show the destruction of the war.
9. Why were there so many refugees in World War II? How were they cared for?
10. What were the important terms of the treaties made with Italy, Hungary, Bulgaria, Rumania, and Finland?
11. Why, so many years following the war, have no treaties of peace been made with the powers of Germany and Austria?
12. What action did the Allies take against the leaders of Germany and Japan who were responsible for "war crimes"?
13. For what did the treaty with Japan provide, and what nations refused to sign it?

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. What are the underlying causes for war?
2. What lessons should the democratic nations have learned from their failure to prevent war? What evidences have there been since World War II that the democratic nations did profit by their experiences?
3. Why do dictators or absolute monarchs so frequently resort to war? Why is it more difficult for a democratic government to attack its neighbors?
4. Why were the Russians so eager for the Western Allies to open a second front in Europe?
5. Do you agree that "national morality is as vital as private morality"?
6. What did President Roosevelt mean when he called the United States the "arsenal of democracy"?
7. How did it happen that Soviet Russia and the United States were allies during the war when the United States disapproved so heartily of the Soviet economic and political system?
8. Which, in your opinion, did more to win

World War II: superior generalship or the greater resources of the Allies; greater manpower or superior weapons of the Allies; a better cause for fighting or a greater industrial system?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• arsenal of democracy • battle of Britain • cash and carry plan • D-day • Gibraltar of the East • island hopping • Lend-Lease • Loyalists • Maginot Line • "Phony war" • Rome-Berlin Axis • UNRRA • V-E Day • V-J Day • war criminals •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• 1931 • 1935 • 1936-1939 • 1937 • March, 1938 • September, 1938 • August, 1939 • Sept. 1, 1939 • June, 1941 • December 7, 1941 • May 8, 1945 • August 5, 1945 • September 2, 1945 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

• Albania • Aleutian Islands • Algiers • Australia • Berlin • Bulgaria • Burma • Calais • Celebes • Czechoslovakia • Chungking • Corregidor • Danzig • Dodecanese Islands • Dunkerque • El Alamein • Eniwetok • Eritrea • Estonia • Ethiopia • Finland • Guadalcanal • Hawaii • Hiroshima • Java • Java Sea • Kurile Islands • Kwajalein • Latvia • Leningrad • Leyte • Libya • Lithuania • London • Maginot Line • Malay Peninsula • Manchukuo • Moscow • Munich • Norway • Oran • Palau • Pearl Harbor • Philippines • Polish Corridor • Rabaul • Rhone River • Rumania • Saipan • Sakhalin • San Francisco • Singapore • Solomon Islands • Stalingrad • Sudetenland • Suez Canal • Sumatra • Teheran • Trieste • Tunisia • Vichy • Wake Island •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

• Sir Harold Alexander • Omar Bradley •  
Neville Chamberlain • Chiang Kai-shek •  
Winston Churchill • Edouard Daladier •  
Jean Francois Darlan • John Foster Dulles •  
Dwight D. Eisenhower • Francisco Franco •  
Sir Arthur Harris • Adolf Hitler • Haile  
Selassie • Pierre Laval • Jonathan Wain-  
wright • Douglas MacArthur • Sir Ber-  
nard Montgomery • Benito Mussolini •  
Chester W. Nimitz • Alexander Patch •  
Erwin Rommel • Franklin D. Roosevelt •  
Carl Spaatz • Josef Stalin • Sir Arthur  
Tedder • Hideki Tojo • A. A. Vandegrift •



Black Star

Heavy machinery was included in the "articles of defense" shipped under the Lend-Lease Act.

#### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Prepare a map showing the Allied countries in one color and the Axis powers in another. Place it on the bulletin board.

2. Draw cartoons of Churchill, Mussolini, Hitler, Roosevelt, or any other person mentioned in this chapter, at some important point in his life. Ask your teacher to judge them.

3. Hold an informal group discussion for the benefit of the rest of the class on one of the following statements:

a. Hitler should have been stopped by France and Britain when he rode into Austria to take it over.

b. The French and British were right in signing the Munich agreement because they thought it would keep peace.

c. The United States should have recognized Manchukuo.

d. There were good arguments for invading Europe through Normandy.

e. Island-hopping was a clever idea.

f. Putting war criminals to death set a dangerous precedent.

4. Invite some one in your community to talk to the class on his experiences in the war. At the close of his talk, give time for questions.

5. Hold a panel discussion on the topic How We Helped Win World War II. Let one person on the panel represent a railroad engineer, one a farmer, one a worker in a munitions factory, and one a housewife.

#### III. At the Blackboard

List the contributions of the United States in winning World War II.

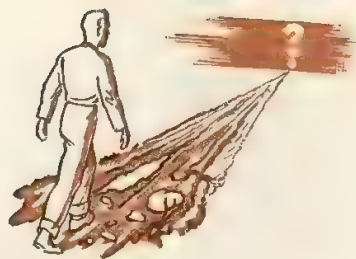
#### IV. For the Bulletin Board

One pupil may make a bar graph for the class showing the total income of the United States and the total expenditures for each of the war years.

#### V. Research

Prepare one of the following topics to report on to the class:

• French (Dutch, Norwegian) underground •  
Convoy duty • D-day • Lend-Lease • U-  
boat warfare • Fifth-column activities •  
Rationing in Britain or some other country •  
Advances in science during the war •



41

## *The Road of the Post-War World Is Rough*

All wars bring problems in their wake, and the bigger the war, the bigger the problems that follow it. World War II was by far the “biggest” war ever fought, and it was followed by a multitude of problems. Every country in the world felt its effects; both domestic and international problems plagued all of them.

### **SOCIALISM INCREASES FOLLOWING WORLD WAR II**

One of the important questions in all countries in the post-war period was the fate of capitalism. Several European countries between World War I and World War II had either strictly regulated or taken possession of their chief industries and means of transportation and communication. Following World War II this trend was hastened. The idea became accepted in many countries that the government was responsible for the proper functioning of the country's economic system as well as for the social security of all the inhabitants of the country. This principle often led the state to take over industries that were not run as the people felt they should be. This system of socialism varied in different countries.

In Western Europe, with the exception of Spain, Portugal, Germany, and Italy, democratic principles had long been established. In those democratic countries parties favoring varying degrees of socialism were voted into office by the people. There were good reasons for this. In the first place, many industries had been inefficiently run because of outmoded equipment that private owners did not or could not modernize because of lack of sufficient money. This was true in the coal industry particularly. In the second place, in some countries war damages were so great that it took the collective capital of the state to finance such large undertakings as new systems of transportation, or dams for water power. In the third place, the post-war world was so unsettled that many persons did not want to venture their private capital in factories or other businesses and run the risk of another war destroying them. In the fourth place, Socialist parties had for years past been more prominent in European countries than in the United States. Those who were socialistically minded often blamed the capitalists for the war. In the fifth place, high wartime taxes reduced most large fortunes in the democratic countries so that there was not enough private



capital to promote private enterprise. For all these reasons, governments in France, Great Britain, Norway, Denmark, Belgium, and the Netherlands, as well as Australia, New Zealand, and India, took over many of the businesses in their countries.

## BRITAIN ADOPTS SOCIALISM

Even before the end of the war, many Englishmen were asking what the future would bring. Britain came out of the war greatly weakened in manpower and wealth. Food was so scarce that rationing gave the people only the bare necessities of life. Parliament had been presented a system of social insurance that would care for everyone "from the cradle to the grave," including maternity insurance, health insurance, old age, unemployment, and accident insurance. A new law providing for broader public education was passed. A third issue before the British public was what should be done about the people of the empire who were unhappy under British rule. A fourth question was that of socializing British industries.

**Churchill to Attlee** Churchill's government had been a coalition government during the war, with Conservatives, Laborites, and Liberals working in close harmony for the very existence of the nation. It was evident that on these post-war issues they were not in accord. In 1945 a general election was held resulting in a sweeping victory for the Labor party. Churchill was re-elected to Parliament, but he was now the head of a minority party, the "loyal opposition." Clement Attlee became prime minister.

After the Labor government took office, much of the social security program was

put into effect. The expanded educational program was also started. Compulsory school attendance age was gradually raised until it was sixteen. All children between sixteen and eighteen who left school must attend part-time classes.

## Questions of Empire

The problem of the empire was not so easily acted upon. The Labor party, however, stood for permitting the people of the empire to have complete independence if they wished it. The British withdrew from Egypt at the insistence of the Egyptians. In 1953 Egypt became a republic, with General Naguib its president. There was agitation in South Africa to set up a republic outside the British Commonwealth.

When World War II broke out in 1939, Britain suspended the constitution of 1935 that had been granted to India, and ruled that country under emergency powers. Hindu leaders who caused trouble because they objected to this were put into prison. Among them was Mahatma Gandhi, who was placed under house arrest. Now

*Britain's coal miners celebrate when the mines become the property of the nation. Comment on what the sign says.*

Acme Photo



that the war was over, a solution had to be found for the Indian question.

**Socialism** The greatest opposition to the Labor government of Great Britain came over the question of socializing, or turning over to government ownership, some of the industries of Britain. The Bank of England was the first business to be nationalized. This was followed by the coal mines, civil aviation, electricity, gas, and transportation. A compulsory health insurance plan was established and was widely criticized for making most doctors employees of the state. People feared it would stifle advances in medicine. Although Britain adopted some degree of socialism, it was done by a democratic process. The former owners of the businesses were paid for their business in government bonds, and there were still many professions and industries not run by the government.

From time to time it seemed that the Labor party would be forced out of office,

*Rationing of fuel, clothing, and food continued in Great Britain for nine years after the end of World War II.*

Combine



for its policies made many critics and enemies. Although in the next election of 1950 the Laborites won by a slight majority, less than two years later they were forced out of office. The Conservatives, led by Winston Churchill, gained control of the government. In 1955, Anthony Eden succeeded Churchill, who resigned because of advanced age. In a general election held later that year, the Conservatives were returned to power. Under neither Conservative prime minister were the socialized industries returned to their former owners.

**England's Poverty** Immediately following the war, goods were scarce in Britain. There was strict rationing of most foods, clothing, fuel, and household appliances. Houses were very scarce; it was estimated that one fourth of the population lacked adequate housing. England was poor; two wars had sapped her wealth. In order to live, she had to buy food and raw materials abroad, chiefly from her colonies and dominions and from the United States. The United States made generous loans to the country to aid in its economic plight. By putting up with hardships and by strict economy, Britain's economic position gradually improved. The Laborites attributed this to their measures, while Conservatives and Liberals said it was due to the courage of the British people and the aid from America.

In 1953, upon the death of her father, Elizabeth II became queen. She was very popular throughout the Commonwealth.

1. State the chief reasons for the increase of socialism after the war.
2. In 1945 what party gained leadership in the House of Commons?
3. What is the "loyal opposition"?



4. What industries were nationalized in Great Britain?
5. Why was there rationing in Great Britain?

## THE FRENCH ORGANIZE THE FOURTH REPUBLIC

**Charles de Gaulle** When the German armies overran France and the French Parliament had to decide what to do, 569 of the 928 members voted to accept Germany's terms and move the French government to Vichy, where Marshall Petain became a dictator under German control. Many Frenchmen objected to giving up the struggle, and they formed the Free French Movement under the leadership of General Charles de Gaulle, who set up his headquarters in London. Gradually, at the risk of losing their lives, many Frenchmen joined resistance groups in France. When the Allied armies liberated France in 1944, de Gaulle moved into Paris. There he was joined by the leaders of the resistance forces, and from Paris his government ruled France for fifteen months.

### Effects of the War on France

De Gaulle found a France that, although it had not suffered so much as some other continental countries, was in a state of chaos. The damage to property was estimated at \$21,000,000,000, or about twice that of World War I. Bridges, roads, and railroads were in ruin. Food was scarce, and the French money was worth very little. It was estimated that a million and a half Frenchmen had lost their lives in the war.

### Economic and Political Reconstruction

Almost immediately, de Gaulle set about trying to remedy the ills of France. An army was raised which played a

part in the final victory over Germany. Partly because the economy was in a state of collapse, and partly because of pressure by some of the resistance groups, France nationalized the coal mines, gas, electricity, auto and airplane industries, and banking.

France needed a government that would be the choice of the people and would be able to rebuild France. De Gaulle's government, therefore, called a national convention in 1945 to draft a new constitution. The voters rejected the constitution that they made. A second constitution the next year received a bare majority of the votes cast, and one third of the eligible voters did not go to the polls.

### The Fourth French Republic

The constitution of the Fourth French Republic made France a democracy. It called for a government organized like that of the Third Republic. Not only were the personal liberties of the French Declaration of the Rights of Man provided for, but, for the first time, women were granted the right to vote. It guaranteed to labor the right of collective bargaining and the right to strike. It added certain socialistic provisions, such as the right to employment, the right to health, rest, leisure, and education. It further stated that all businesses that were a public service should be nationalized.

**Politics** As before the war, France had many political parties, ranging from a strong and well-organized Communist party to a number of small conservative parties. Although France seemed to owe much to de Gaulle, Georges Bidault (bē'dō') became prime minister. France had repeated changes in government.

In the early days under the new constitution, the Communists, who had fought





Wide World

*Travelers in Paris are inconvenienced when the workers of France engage in a general strike against proposed government economy measures. Throughout their history, Frenchmen have been quick to demonstrate disapproval of their leaders.*

against the Nazis, had a large number of seats in the Assembly. Later, when Russia and the Western nations became hostile, Communists in the government declined.

**Economic Conditions** Following the war in 1946, the government set goals for the production of important industries, including coal, power, and steel. The country was plagued by a series of strikes, many of which were inspired by Communists who saw themselves losing ground in France. The workers wanted better wages to offset the increasing cost of living. The farmers of France, too, suffered because there was a succession of poor crops and the cost of industrial products was high. Like Great Britain, France was unable to sell enough abroad to pay for her imports. She was given large loans by the United States to make up the deficit.

owed to Hitler and Mussolini, who had aided him in Spain's Civil War. After World War II he continued his fascist type of government. For these reasons Spain was denied membership in the UN.

As communism became an ever-increasing threat, the United States became more friendly toward Spain. The country occupies an important strategic position in Europe. In 1953 the two nations signed a defense treaty by which the United States was granted air bases in Spain. In return, the United States gave Spain economic aid.

1. What did the French Parliament vote to do in the face of the Nazi power in 1940?
2. What part did Charles de Gaulle play in the French resistance movements?
3. What measures were taken by the provisional government of France?
4. For what did the Constitution of the Fourth Republic provide regarding personal rights, socialism, and government?
5. What were the economic conditions of the Fourth French Republic?
6. How did Spain's position improve?

## SPAIN WINS RECOGNITION

Spain had remained neutral during World War II, despite the debt that Franco

## ITALY CHOOSES TO BE A REPUBLIC

### The Provisional Government

As the Italians and Germans in Italy were pushed farther and farther up the peninsula by the Allied armies (in 1943), Mussolini was forced to resign. He escaped to German-dominated northern Italy, where he was caught and executed by anti-fascists in April, 1945. When the Germans left northern Italy, the country was united under the Allied Military Government.

A provisional government was established in Italy under the prime ministership of Alcide de Gasperi (ăl shē dē dē gās'-pēr ē), who had been imprisoned by Mussolini because of his anti-fascist beliefs. De Gasperi found Italy disunited and hungry. He got great quantities of UNRRA materials, which prevented starvation of many Italians. The fascists, who were still numerous in Italy, were removed from offices.

### Republic Proclaimed

The question of the kind of government for Italy was an important one. A national vote taken in 1946 showed that the majority of Italians favored a republic. Victor Emmanuel III had been forced out in favor of his son, who became Humbert II. Now Humbert was forced to abdicate, and on June 18, 1946, Italy became a republic.

### Italian Constitution

A constitutional convention met to frame a new constitution for the republic. It was completed and went into effect in January, 1948. It provided for a cabinet system of government similar to that of France and Great Britain. Besides setting up the machinery of government, the constitution had other provisions. It favored the Roman Catholic Church in several ways. The teaching of religion was compulsory in all state-supported

primary and secondary schools. Subsidies were granted to the Church, and divorce was not permitted in Italy. There was a bill of rights, however, which permitted all religions to be practiced in the country. Other personal liberties also were granted.

### Politics

Immediately following the war the Communists had been strong, but in 1947 Communist members were dropped from the cabinet. The first election under the new constitution was held in April, 1948. The question of communism was a leading one. The Pope urged all Italians to vote for anti-Communists. De Gasperi argued in his pre-election speeches that American aid would be cut off if Italy "went communist." The Western countries were interested in the results of the election. Communists did not get control of the



*New Italian industries make products for export.*

government as had been feared. De Gasperi became prime minister.

### Economic Conditions

The great problem of any Italian government for a long time had been the bad economic condition of the country. The southern part



of Italy was chiefly agricultural, but the land was poor. In the industrial north conditions were somewhat better, but the north could not absorb the unemployed from the south. The government tried various methods of improving the economic conditions, including breaking up the large estates and making trade treaties with several countries. Despite these measures and large gifts from the United States, the Italian level of living was below that of pre-war Italy.

**Colonies** The Italians had been taught that colonies were necessary to Italy to bolster her prestige and to give living space for her surplus and growing population. No government would have lasted long in Italy that did not work for the restoration of her colonies. Although Italy was denied membership in the United Nations because of Russian opposition, her Western friends were influential in having the United Nations Assembly show some favoritism to Italy in regard to colonies. In November, 1949, the Assembly voted to make her trustee of Italian Somaliland for ten years, after which it would become independent. Libya was granted independence. In 1952 Eritrea was federated with Ethiopia.

Italy showed political stability and her economic condition also improved.

1. What form of government did the Italians decide to have?
2. For what did their constitution of 1948 provide?
3. Who was the prime minister for several years following the war?
4. What measures were taken to reduce communist power in Italy?
5. What were Italy's basic economic problems?

**The Netherlands** No Allied country suffered more in World War II than The Netherlands. It was estimated that she lost one third of the wealth in her own country. Besides, she lost the rich East Indies, which had provided jobs for an estimated 400,000 Hollanders.

As soon as the war ended, Queen Wilhelmina and the government in exile in London were welcomed back to The Netherlands. In 1948, after a reign of fifty years, Wilhelmina abdicated in favor of her daughter, who became Queen Juliana.

The Dutch set to work to reconstruct their country, one tenth of which had been flooded. Roads, railroads, and thousands of homes were rebuilt, and the flooded land was reclaimed from the sea. Holland's chief difficulty lay in her loss of markets in Germany and Britain and her loss of empire.

**Belgium** Belgium suffered less from the war than The Netherlands, although the Nazis confiscated much of her wealth to feed their war machine. Belgium's recovery was also faster than that of The Netherlands. She had not lost her Congo empire, which helped to supply wealth for the mother country.

An important problem facing Belgium was the position of King Leopold. Many leaders, both inside and outside Belgium, blamed him for not continuing the fight against the Nazis in 1940. Because of this, his return to Belgium was delayed for several years. When he finally was permitted to return, there was so much opposition to him that he abdicated in favor of his son, who became King Baudouin (bō dwān'), in 1951.

**The Scandinavian Countries** Although Denmark, Norway, and Swe-



den were monarchies, they were among the most progressive and democratic nations of Europe. Sweden managed to remain neutral during World War II, but the other two were occupied by the Nazis, and Norway, especially, suffered greatly. After the war these countries continued the same general policies they had followed before the war. All of them had what is called a "mixed economy," that is, part of their industries were government owned, some were privately owned, and many were co-operatives. There was also a lack of foreign trade following the war.

In foreign affairs their sympathies were with the West because they were all democratic, but Sweden, so near to the Soviet Union, tried to continue her long tradition of neutrality in foreign disputes. Denmark and Norway joined with the West in its attempt to build up a system of security against Communist Russia. So did Iceland, the island country that had broken its union with Denmark in 1944 and set up an independent republic.

*More than one third of the Swedish people belong to co-operatives, which buy at wholesale for their members and also produce many goods.*

American Swedish News Exchange



1. Why did the small countries of Western Europe have difficulty in their return to economic stability? Why was Belgium an exception?
2. What was Belgium's political problem?
3. Explain the "mixed economy" of the Scandinavian countries.
4. What was the chief aim of Sweden's foreign policy?

### AN "IRON CURTAIN" FALLS BETWEEN EASTERN AND WESTERN EUROPE

At the close of the war Russia had troops in Poland, Bulgaria, Rumania, Czechoslovakia, Austria, Hungary, and Yugoslavia. In all these countries the Communists gained control of the governments. Persons from other countries were not allowed to move freely in these communist lands. Winston Churchill, speaking in the United States, deplored the difficulty of getting any news from "behind the iron curtain." Persons who managed to escape from those areas told something of the oppressive measures taken there. Opposition newspapers were forbidden and radios were silenced. There were thousands of arrests of people who dared to oppose the government. Only the Communist party was permitted to exist. Concentration camps were filled. The Western World recoiled from Russia and her methods.

**Czechoslovakia** The case of Czechoslovakia will illustrate the methods used by the Communists to gain control in these countries. There was a strong Communist party in Czechoslovakia, backed by Soviet Russia. Therefore the cabinet had some Communist members, among whom was the Minister of the Interior. He re-

moved democratic policemen and put strong members of the Communist party in their places. When the members of the cabinet resigned in protest against such action, Klement Gottwald (gât váld), the head of the Communist party, demanded that he be permitted to form a cabinet. General strikes called by the Communist leaders in labor unions and a show of force on the part of the Communist party made President Eduard Beneš give in to his demands. A few days later, March 10, 1948, the world was startled by the news that Jan Masaryk, the democratic foreign minister, and son of the first president of the republic, had committed suicide. The Western world believed that he had been murdered. President Beneš, who was ill, had retired to his country home, a saddened and broken man. He died in six months. The Communists had control of the country.

They set about at once to purge Czechoslovakia of all democratically minded officials. Schools were ordered to teach communism, and every schoolroom had to have a picture of Stalin prominently displayed. All the democratic principles that Beneš, Thomas Masaryk, and his son, Jan Masaryk, had stood for and worked so hard to preserve, were destroyed.

## A "COLD WAR" IS WAGED

It became clear to the Western Allies even before the end of the war that one very serious post-war problem would be communism. Although Soviet Russia had received much material aid from both Great Britain and the United States, she held close to her political theory of taking advantage of suffering and poverty to win nations over to communism. Most of the nations of the world took sides behind the two leaders

in this war of ideas, this "cold war." Those leaders were the United States and Soviet Russia. At times the accusations between them grew so sharp that the small countries feared open warfare would result.

## GERMANY

Perhaps no country felt the results of the "cold war" so much as Germany, since she lay between the East and West. The war had left Germany prostrate; destruction was widespread; government had collapsed; her money was valueless; all industry was at a standstill. Before the close of the war, at a conference at Yalta in the Crimea, it was agreed that East Prussia should be divided between Soviet Union and Poland. Other parts of eastern Germany were to be given to Poland to compensate her for the land she had lost to Russia. These provisions were carried out, thus cutting Germany down from 181,000 square miles to 138,000 square miles. Her population had been reduced to 70,000,000. Besides these losses, the problem of rebuilding property was costly.

**Zones of Occupation** It had also been decided at Yalta and confirmed at the Potsdam Conference by President Truman, Prime Minister Attlee, and Stalin, that the four powers, Britain, France, the Soviet Union, and the United States, would occupy Germany and Austria until peace treaties could be made. In the meantime, Germany was to be disarmed, Nazis were to be taken out of office, Germany's industries were to be dismantled so that she could never again make war, and she was to be taught democratic methods of government.

**German Federal Republic** The four zones were set up and each one held

local elections to get its own government running. It was not long before the Western Powers and Russia disagreed on the methods to be used in Germany. Attempts to make a peace treaty also broke down. At last it seemed to the Western Powers that, since they could come to no agreement with Russia, they should merge their three zones and set up a government for Western Germany. This was done, thus dividing Germany into East Germany, controlled by Russia, and West Germany, under the joint occupation of France, Great Britain, and the United States.

A constitution for all of West Germany became effective May 8, 1949, just four years after the unconditional surrender of Germany. It provided for a president elected indirectly for five years and two houses of parliament. Bonn was chosen as the capital of the *German Federal Republic*. At its first election the Christian Democratic party, led by Konrad Adenauer (ă'dě nou ěr), received the largest number of votes, and Adenauer became chancellor.

### German Democratic Republic

The Soviet Union protested against the establishment of the German Federal Republic and countered it by setting up the *German Democratic Republic* for Eastern Germany. Russia withdrew some of her troops and turned over the government to the German Communists; but East Germany had a strong police force, trained in military tactics.

**Air-Lift** Russia wanted a united Germany that would allow her to spread communism all the way to the Rhine River. The Western nations also wanted a united Germany, but one in which the people would decide their own form of



government. The Western Powers now tried to improve the economic conditions in Western Germany by issuing new currency. Whereupon Russia blockaded all Western trade with Berlin in order to starve Westerners out of the city. The Western nations instituted an "air-lift" that moved tons of supplies into the Western half of Berlin and thus held their position in that city. This was a great material and moral victory over the Communists, and in 1949 Russia raised her blockade.

**More Self-government** In 1950 France, Great Britain, and the United States agreed to guarantee the defense of the German Republic and to let her handle her own foreign affairs. They also agreed to let her make more ships, produce more steel for sale to anticommunist countries, and to increase her police force. In 1954, the Western Allies agreed to let Germany establish her own army and share in the defense of Western Europe. The cost of occupying Germany was great. In the first five years the United States spent nearly seven billion dollars on the task.



**Peace with Austria** In 1955 the United States and Russia reached an agreement concerning Austria. The treaty called for the withdrawal of all foreign troops from Austria, which became independent.

1. At the close of the war what territory did Russia occupy outside her own country?
2. What was the meaning of "behind the iron curtain"?
3. Tell how Communists gained control of Czechoslovakia.
4. Why did a "cold war" develop?
5. What powers had zones of occupation in Germany after the war?
6. What were the chief aims of the occupying powers as stated at Yalta and Potsdam?
7. What territory did Germany lose?
8. Why was the Russian zone left out of the Federal Republic of Germany?
9. For what did the new German constitution provide?
10. Who became the chancellor of West Germany?
11. What was done about Germany in 1950? About Austria in 1955?

## THE UNITED STATES ATTEMPTS TO STEM THE TIDE OF COMMUNISM

The West soon realized that the Soviet Union was attempting to win the world to communism by methods such as she had used in Czechoslovakia and had attempted to use in Germany. That is, she built up Communist parties in other countries to take over the governments and run them according to the ideas coming from Moscow. In that way no wars would be fought; Russia would lose no treasure and no men.

**Truman Doctrine** When, according to this plan, Communists from sur-

rounding countries tried to take control of Greece, the Greeks fought back. Without foreign aid, however, their position seemed desperate, for they had little money to buy munitions. Their traditional friend, Britain, could no longer aid them because of her own dangerous financial condition. The United States, being the strongest power in the Western world, offered aid. President Truman asked Congress to appropriate \$400,000,000 to bolster the economy and fighting strength of Greece and Turkey, another country threatened by Russia. With this aid both countries were able to stay out of the Russian sphere. This determination of the United States to contain communism in Eastern Europe became known as the Truman Doctrine.

**Marshall Plan** The countries of Western Europe, weakened by two great wars, looked into the future with discouragement and fear. Therefore, soon after the close of the war they began to make economic, political, and military alliances to strengthen Western Europe. The American Secretary of State, General Marshall, proposed economic aid if the countries co-operated. Out of his proposal came the "Marshall Plan" or "European Recovery Plan," whereby eighteen countries were to supply each other with the materials they could spare and the United States would give aid. The help from the United States was to be used for *recovery*, not *relief*.

In 1948 Congress passed a bill for the European Recovery Plan for four years and appropriated about five billion dollars to be used the first year. At first the plan was proposed for all countries, but Russia refused it and would not permit the countries under communist rule to accept it either. Eighteen European countries did enter

*Bags of flour and  
canned goods are  
loaded on a U.S. ship  
for delivery in Greece.*



Wide World

the agreement to co-operate with the United States. Under the ERP, industrial output in most countries grew and in many of them exceeded that of 1939. As the economic conditions improved, the Communist parties declined in numbers and power. Although improvement had been made, as 1952 drew near it was evident that countries would not yet be able to get along entirely on their own resources.

After prolonged debate, the Congress of the United States set up a new organization, known as the Mutual Security Organization, to care for all the foreign aid projects of the United States.

### **North Atlantic Treaty Organization**

There seemed to be a danger that the "cold war" would erupt into a shooting war at any moment. If that happened, Western Europe realized it would be the battleground, with no means of defending itself. In 1948, therefore, Great Britain, France, and the Benelux (bĕn'ĕ lŭx) countries (Belgium, The Netherlands, and Luxembourg) invited the United States and Canada to join them in forming a defen-

sive alliance against possible communist aggression. The United States and Canada agreed to do so. Norway, Denmark, Italy, Iceland, and Portugal entered the alliance, which went into effect in 1949. Two years later Greece and Turkey became members. This organization, known as the North Atlantic Treaty Organization, promised that it would never be used to promote aggression; nor would it attempt to by-pass the United Nations Security Council.

Since tension between the nations did not subside, in 1951 it was decided to create an international army for the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. Dwight D. Eisenhower was made commander, with the responsibility for getting the member countries to supply troops and build defenses. The United States furnished part of the weapons. Eisenhower set up his headquarters in Paris and began building an armed force. General Matthew Ridgway succeeded him, and later General Alfred M. Gruenther and General Lauris Norstad.

Russia condemned the organization as a preparation for aggressive war and with radio and other propaganda tried to break



down faith in it. The Western nations replied through radio and press. The State Department of the United States and private organizations set up radios in Europe beamed to the countries behind the "iron curtain" to tell them the truth about America and the Western nations. This was called the "Voice of America."

**SEATO and METO** Two other organizations were formed to protect the free world from the spread of communism. One was SEATO, the Southeast Asia Treaty Organization, set up in 1954. Eight member countries, Great Britain, France, United States, the Philippines, Thailand, New Zealand, Australia, and Pakistan, pledged mutual military aid against an aggressor, technical assistance, and economic co-operation.

METO, the Middle East Treaty Organization, forms a geographic link between NATO and SEATO. Its members, Great Britain, Turkey, Iraq, Iran, and Pakistan, pledged mutual military assistance in a treaty signed in Baghdad in 1956.

**Cominform** Russia gathered her forces in the "cold war" by organizing

*The Voice of America reaches a small town in Turkey, where eager villagers are particularly excited because two monitors from the United States Information Service are asking them how to improve the broadcasts to Turkey.*

United States Department of State

the Cominform to replace the *Third International* or *Comintern* which had been dissolved during World War II. The Cominform was composed of representatives of Communist parties all over the world.

Yugoslavia, although a strongly communistic country, broke away from the Cominform and Russian control. Their dictator, Marshal Tito, had been trained in communism in Russia, but he resented Russia's attempt to help herself to Yugoslavia's resources. In 1956, however, Russian leaders dissolved the Cominform and Tito again made friends with the Russian masters.

**Death of Stalin** Stalin died early in 1953. Eventually Nikita Khrushchev emerged as boss of the party. Nicholai Bulganin became prime minister. Their new "line" was to defame Stalin as a cruel dictator and to woo the Asiatic and European countries with friendly overtures.

1. What was the Truman Doctrine?
2. How did the European Recovery Plan come into being?
3. What was the Mutual Security Organization?





4. Explain why the North Atlantic Treaty Organization came into being. What countries belonged to it?
5. What position did General Eisenhower have in N.A.T.O.?
6. What action did Russia take against N.A.T.O.?
7. What was the "Voice of America"?
8. What was the purpose of the Cominform?
9. For what purpose were SEATO and METO formed? Name their members.
10. Name the present Russian dictator.

## EUROPE ATTEMPTS TO CO-OPERATE POLITICALLY

**Council of Europe** Economic co-operation among the states of Europe was not easy to attain, for each state had for so long been going its own way. Political co-operation was no easier because nationalism was a strong force in all countries.

Before World War II some European statesmen had talked of a United States of Europe, but no action had been taken. Following the war, meetings were held by individuals who thought that Western Europe must unite or perish. One of the leaders of the movement was Winston Churchill. The idea caught the popular imagination as a possible answer to Europe's problems. Still, the nations were unwilling to give up their sovereign rights. The best that could be achieved was a Council of Europe to discuss the problems. This was set up in 1949. The Council had no real authority to act, as the French Parliament, for instance, could act. All it could do was hold meetings and talk over the ills of Europe and what might be done about them. On this modest but very hopeful basis, fifteen states joined: Britain, Belgium, France, The Netherlands, Luxembourg, Denmark, Sweden, Norway,

Italy, Ireland, Greece, Turkey, Iceland, the Saar, and the West German Republic.

**The Schuman Plan** Some French statesmen believed that the best way to unite Europe would be by way of economic unity and prosperity. A plan worked out along these lines was presented by the French Foreign Minister, Robert Schuman, to a conference of European governments, meeting in Paris in 1950. The next year a treaty to last for fifty years was signed by Belgium, France, The Netherlands, Italy, Luxembourg, and West Germany and went into effect in 1952. The plan, popularly called the Schuman Plan, is also known as the European Coal and Steel Community. The first president of the Community was Jean Monnet (zhân mōh nay'). The production of all the coal and steel in the six countries was to be carried on by the Community, with no tariffs among the six countries on coal and steel. In this practical way the six nations were co-operating for peace and prosperity. Many people hoped that the European Coal and Steel Community might be the germ of a United States of Europe.

Optimistic persons, who saw in the Council of Europe a step toward peace between France and Germany, were disturbed when the Saar, in a plebiscite in 1955, voted against continuing economic co-operation with France. Was nationalism still too strong to permit a close union of Europe?

## THE UNITED STATES, WORLD LEADER

**Cost of Leadership** Following the First World War the United States had returned to isolationism, hoping thereby to keep free from Europe's problems. She had not succeeded. Therefore, after

charge of the job. The treaty that was signed in September, 1951, restored Japan to a position of self-government and independence in the family of nations.

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Committee on World Literacy





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World War II the United States assumed the responsibility of leadership among the democratic countries of the world. This was true not only in opposing communism, but in giving material and technical aid to democratic nations and to underdeveloped parts of the world. Although at the close of the war the United States had a debt of nearly two hundred sixty billion dollars, her generosity continued. In the first ten years after the war the United States gave \$51,336,208,000 for foreign aid. This was not done without protest. Many persons felt that the United States gave too liberally, that she should pay off her own huge debt, that the treasure of the country was being spent to aid other nations who would become the competitors of the United States when they had built up their industries. Despite these arguments, Congress continued to vote immense sums annually for foreign aid.

**Fair Deal Program** Harry S. Truman, who became President after the death of President Roosevelt in 1945, tried to have enacted into law what he called his "Fair Deal" program. In much of this he was doomed to disappointment. He worked in vain to have legislation repealed which he thought was unfair to labor. He advocated a compulsory health insurance program, which was also rejected by Congress. He also urged Congress to pass a civil rights program protecting the Negro and giving him economic and social equality with the white man. This was considered by many a responsibility of the states and Congress refused to approve it. He did succeed in having laws passed to aid in housing for the lower income groups and Congress made more people eligible for Social Security benefits.

1. What was the purpose of the Council of Europe?
2. Contrast the position of the United States after the First World War with her position after the Second World War.
3. What was the Fair Deal program?
4. Describe the Schuman Plan.

## CHINA AND JAPAN, A STUDY IN CONTRAST

**China** The Chinese civil war, which had grown in intensity during World War II, continued to plague that vast country after the defeat of the Japanese. General Chiang Kai-shek bitterly opposed the Communists and refused them any part in his government. The Chinese Nationalist government of Chiang was charged with inefficiency and corruption by his opponents. Prices were greatly inflated and millions of the common people of China lived in poverty. The propaganda of the Communists had a strong appeal.

The United States sent General George C. Marshall to China to try to bring the two factions to terms. He secured a truce between the hostile groups and had them agree to consider revising the constitution of 1936. The Communists, thinking that the United States was trying to help the Nationalists regain complete control of North China and Manchuria, refused to participate in a constitutional convention or in a national election.

In the meantime, the Communists expanded their control over other parts of China. In 1948 the United States tried to support the Nationalist government by extending \$420,000,000 of the European Recovery funds as aid to China. Late that year Madame Chiang flew to Washington to get more material help against the surge

of communism. By that time the Truman administration had come to believe that previous help had not been effective and that the Chiang government was too unpopular among the Chinese to be continued in office with American aid. Therefore, the United States began to withdraw its support from China. When General Mao Tse-tung (mā'ō dzǔ'dōng), the Communist leader, broadcast his harsh peace terms, Chiang resigned as president. As the Communists swept southward, the Nationalists moved their capital to Canton, and finally they fled to the island of Formosa, where Chiang again became president of Nationalist China. By mid-1950 the Communists had control of all the Chinese mainland and claimed to be the true government of China. Several countries, including Great Britain, recognized the new government, but the United States refused to do so.

**Japan** While China was being torn by civil war and slowly drawn to the side of Russia, Japan set about putting her house in order. General Douglas MacArthur was given the job of commanding the occupying forces in Japan, which was in a state of complete collapse. Her empire was gone. Between nine and ten million people were homeless. Her industries had been smashed by Allied bombs. Food was so scarce that Japanese were given about one third the number of calories that people in the United States were using. Japan's future looked dark, indeed.

But in the next five years Japan made steady gains. Under the guidance of MacArthur, a constitution was made and Japanese life underwent a great change. Shintoism and worship of the emperor were banned, permitting the Japanese people to look upon the face of their emperor for the



Wide World

*Japanese women voted for the first time in 1946. These women are voting for their representatives to the Diet.*

first time. Women were given the ballot and were made socially equal to men. The Japanese constitution renounced war. Japan's economic position improved also. The United States spent large sums of money to care for the people there. By 1950 a special study made for the United States showed that Japan had gone far in her recovery.

The United States was eager to bring Japan back into the family of nations. In this objective she gained the support of the West, but on the method to be employed, the West and Russia did not agree. The United States believed that all nations that had fought Japan should be permitted a part in making the treaty, while Russia wanted it made by Great Britain, Communist China, Russia, and the United States. Since no agreement could be reached, the United States with the backing of most of the nations set about drafting a treaty. John Foster Dulles, of the United States, was in



charge of the job. The treaty that was signed in September, 1951, restored Japan to a position of self-government and independence in the family of nations.

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July, armistice agreements were reached. The Communists gained all of Indo-China north of the 17th Parallel, the French the south. The United States respected the truce but refused to sign documents which made such surrenders to the Communists.

**The Bandung Conference** The spirit of nationalism among the peoples of the world was nowhere more forcefully demonstrated than in the calling of the Bandung Conference in April, 1955. For the first time, twenty-nine independent countries of Asia and Africa met in Indonesia to discuss their problems. While no immediate changes were planned, the Conference condemned colonialism in terms that would have startled the empire-builders of a century ago. The exploited nations of the world were demanding their rights.

1. Why was there a surge of nationalism in Asia following World War II? In what countries?
2. Trace the story leading to the independence of India, Pakistan, Burma, and Ceylon.
3. What type of government was given the Malayan states?
4. Describe the political situation in Indo-China. The military situation.

## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. The two-party system of Great Britain and the United States has produced more stable government than the many-party system of France. Explain why that is true.
2. In what ways are the governments of France, Germany, and Italy more like that of Britain than that of the United States?
3. What advantage is there in having the upper house of Parliament, like the Senate of the United States, have power over legislation

that is passed in the lower house?

4. Why did the British need American dollars after the war more than they needed Russian or Japanese money?

5. Why did the Communist Parties decline in all the countries of Western Europe in the first five years after the war?

6. Why do you think Russia refused to join in the Marshall Plan? Would the same reason hold true for her refusal to let other communist countries join?

7. Why did the American Congress appropriate so much money for so many countries after the war?

8. What was wrong in Russia's methods in gaining control of Czechoslovakia?

9. Was the United States wrong in refusing to recognize Communist China? Was Britain right in recognizing her?

10. General MacArthur told the people of Japan that there is no security in this world, only opportunity. What did he mean? Do you agree?

11. Following World War I there was much discussion about disarmament; following World War II there was much discussion about further armaments. Why was there this difference?

## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

1. Can you explain these terms?

- air-lift • Benelux countries • "cold war"
- Cominform • Comintern • Council of Europe • European Recovery Plan • Fair Deal • "iron curtain" • "loyal opposition"
- Marshall Plan • Mutual Security Organization • N.A.T.O. • provisional government • socialism • Third International • Truman Doctrine • UNRRA • Voice of America •

2. Can you show these places on the map?

- Australia • Belgium • Burma • Cal-

cutta • Cambodia • Ceylon • China • Congo • Czechoslovakia • Denmark • Dutch East Indies • East Prussia • Eritrea • Formosa • France • German Democratic Republic • German Federal Republic • Great Britain • Greece • Iceland • India • Indo-China • Italy • Italian Somaliland • Japan • Laos • Libya • London • Luxembourg • Manchuria • Netherlands • New Zealand • Norway • Pakistan • Philippines • Poland • Soviet Union • Sweden • Turkey • United States • Vietnam • Yalta • Indonesia •

### 3. Can you identify these persons?

• Clement Attlee • Bao-dai • Baudouin • Beneš • Georges Bidault • Chiang Kai-shek • Alcide de Gasperi • Charles de Gaulle • Clement Gottwald • Ho Chi-Minh • Humbert II • Juliana • Leopold • Mao Tse-tung • George C. Marshall • Jan Masaryk • Thomas Masaryk • Jean Monnet • Lord Mountbatten • Bulganin • Josef Stalin • Marshal Tito • Victor Emmanuel III • Robert Schuman • Elizabeth II • Krushchev •

## II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. Let each boy make a list of the ten greatest men in the world today and the girls list the ten greatest women. Defend your lists.

2. Make a chart of the government of one of the countries discussed in this unit showing the relation between the voters and each part of the government.

3. Make a picture album of the leaders of the European countries today. Newspapers and magazines will have such pictures.

4. Ask some person in your community who has recently been in Europe or Asia to talk to the class on the conditions of living and the government in one or more of the countries.

## III. For the Bulletin Board

Make a picture collection for the bulletin board showing the important government buildings of the world. Label each one. You

might start with our National Capitol and the White House, and then get the corresponding buildings in as many countries as possible.

## IV. Group Assignments

1. Report to the class on one of the following topics:

• The Marshall Plan • N.A.T.O. • The Council of Europe • The Mutual Security Organization • The Cominform • The Comintern •

2. Divide into groups of four each and let each group choose one of the following statements for an informal debate:

- Democracy is the best government yet devised by man.
- Royalty in Britain is too costly a luxury.
- All democratic nations should cut diplomatic relations with communist countries.
- Sweden should join the N.A.T.O.
- The people behind the "iron curtain" should rise in revolt.
- Communism could not last long without a dictatorial government behind it.
- Circumstances have forced socialism upon the peoples of Western Europe.
- Social Security causes people to depend too much upon the government.
- Nationalism is a strong force in the world today.
- "It is moral forces that, more than all others, govern the direction and regulate the advance of our affairs."

## V. Picture Study

In the spot drawing at the top of page 528 a youth is shown traveling a rough road to the future. What are some of the questions facing him, and you? What are some of the challenges?



## Man Continues on the Great Adventure

Even while World War II was in progress, the Allies began laying the foundations upon which they hoped permanent peace might be built. The leadership in this move-

*A high point in man's history is reached when the United Nations Charter is signed in San Francisco, in 1945.*

United Nations



ment was assumed by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. On January 6, 1941, before the United States entered the war, he said in a message to Congress that he looked forward to "a world founded upon four essential freedoms." These were freedom of speech, freedom of worship, freedom from fear, and freedom from want.

### THE ATLANTIC CHARTER

After the war spread to Russia, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill met August 3-14, 1941, on a cruiser off the coast of Newfoundland. They talked of aid to the Soviet Union and of lend-lease supplies for Great Britain. They also drew up the famed Atlantic Charter containing the common principles upon which their two countries hoped the future world would rest. Those principles were really statements of war aims for which free men could fight. They declared that the United States and Great Britain (1) sought no territory; (2) wanted no territorial changes without the consent of the peoples concerned; (3) insisted on the right of every people to determine their own form of government; (4) would work for lower



trade barriers so that every nation could have access to the raw materials of the world on equal terms; (5) would try to raise the economic prosperity of the entire world by finding ways and means of international co-operation; (6) would try to develop an international community in which each nation would be safe from aggression; (7) would create freedom of the seas for all nations; (8) stood for abandonment of the use of force in international relations; (9) would support a program of disarmament and (10) the establishment of some "system of general security."

## THE UNITED NATIONS

After the United States entered the war, she proposed that all nations at war against the Axis powers endorse the principles of the Atlantic Charter, pledge their co-operation in defending the fundamental freedoms, and agree not to make a separate peace. They did so in the *Declaration of the United Nations*, which was signed on January 1, 1942, by twenty-six nations. Thus the Atlantic Charter became a charter of aims for all powers fighting the Axis.

**Postwar Plans** From time to time during the war, President Roosevelt and Prime Minister Churchill met together with their advisers to plan the strategy of the war. Sometimes heads of other governments met with them. It seemed logical as the tide of the war turned that they should take the lead in constructing a plan for peace, also. Representatives of the United States, the Soviet Union, China, and Great Britain met at Dumbarton Oaks in Washington, D. C. in October, 1944. They agreed upon the general principles of a United Nations Organization.

**San Francisco Conference** Even while the Allied powers were still actively at war with the Nazis and the Japanese, the representatives of fifty nations met in San Francisco to complete the Charter of the United Nations. The first session was held on April 25, 1945, two weeks before Germany sued for peace. The delegates who met at San Francisco represented the majority of mankind, almost 1,700,000,000 people. After two months of work, the Charter was completed and signed on June 26, 1945, by the representatives of all the nations present. The Charter was ratified by enough members to be put into operation on October 24, 1945. The new world organization for peace was born.

1. What were the "four freedoms"?
2. What were the war aims as stated in the Atlantic Charter?
3. What was the Declaration of the United Nations? How many nations signed it?
4. What were the chief purposes of the meetings between Roosevelt and Churchill?
5. What points regarding an international organization were decided upon at Dumbarton Oaks?
6. What was accomplished at the San Francisco Conference?
7. When was the United Nations organized?

## THE SIX PRINCIPAL ORGANS IN THE UNITED NATIONS

The purposes of the United Nations are set forth in the preamble to the Charter. Speaking for the peoples of the world, the makers of the Charter declared that they were determined to "save succeeding generations from the scourge of war." In order to do that, conditions would have to be improved so that nations would not have to

fight in order to gain a decent standard of living or to obtain their "fundamental human rights." Finally, they declared that the members would unite their strength to maintain peace and security.

In order to carry out these purposes, six principal organs were set up. They were the General Assembly, the Security Council, the Economic and Social Council, the International Court of Justice, the Trusteeship Council, and the Secretariat.

**The General Assembly** The General Assembly has often been spoken of as the "town meeting" of the world. It has delegates from every member nation, who debate the issues of the day and make recommendations to the Security Council. Although the General Assembly does not have power to enforce its opinions, it is equipped to investigate and discuss problems. In this way issues are brought before the peoples of the world and an intelligent public opinion can be formed.

One of the early achievements of the General Assembly was the creation of the International Refugee Organization, which was charged with the care of about 1,600,000 people in Europe who had been made homeless by the war. The IRO established camps where these displaced persons could be cared for until they could return to their homelands or until new homes were found for them.

**The Security Council** According to the Charter, however, the chief body of the United Nations was to be the Security Council, because into its hands would be placed the responsibility of safeguarding world peace. Of its eleven members, five are permanent, China, France, Great Britain, the United States, and the Soviet

Union. The other six members are elected by the General Assembly for a period of two years. Routine matters may be passed by any seven votes of the Security Council, but in more important matters a veto by any one of the permanent members will block the motion. This veto power has proved to be a stumbling block on some occasions, for the Soviet Union has used it so many times that the Council has been prevented from doing its work.

**Economic and Social Council** When friction between two nations reaches a point of war, the situation becomes dangerous. The Economic and Social Council was established to reduce the causes of friction in the world. It co-ordinates the work of a number of special agencies designed to prevent unemployment, disease, hunger, poor housing, bad working conditions, and other conditions that breed discontent and may therefore lead to war. Among these agencies are the World Health Organization, the Food and Agricultural Organization, the International Labor Organization, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization.

**The International Court of Justice** The International Court of Justice, or World Court, continues the work of the World Court established following World War I. Composed of fifteen judges elected by the General Assembly and the Security Council, it sits at The Hague in The Netherlands. All member nations of the UN may submit cases to it. In addition, the court gives advice on legal matters to any organ of the UN.

**The Trusteeship Council** The Trusteeship Council supervises most of the

colonial areas that were taken from the defeated powers after World War I and World War II. These areas are known as trust territories. The nations that govern them are responsible to the Trusteeship Council for their development. The object of the trusteeship system is "to promote the political, economic, social, and educational advancement of the inhabitants of the trust territories, and their progressive development towards self-government or independence."

about matters that should come to their attention. He may act as an impartial party between disagreeing members of the UN.

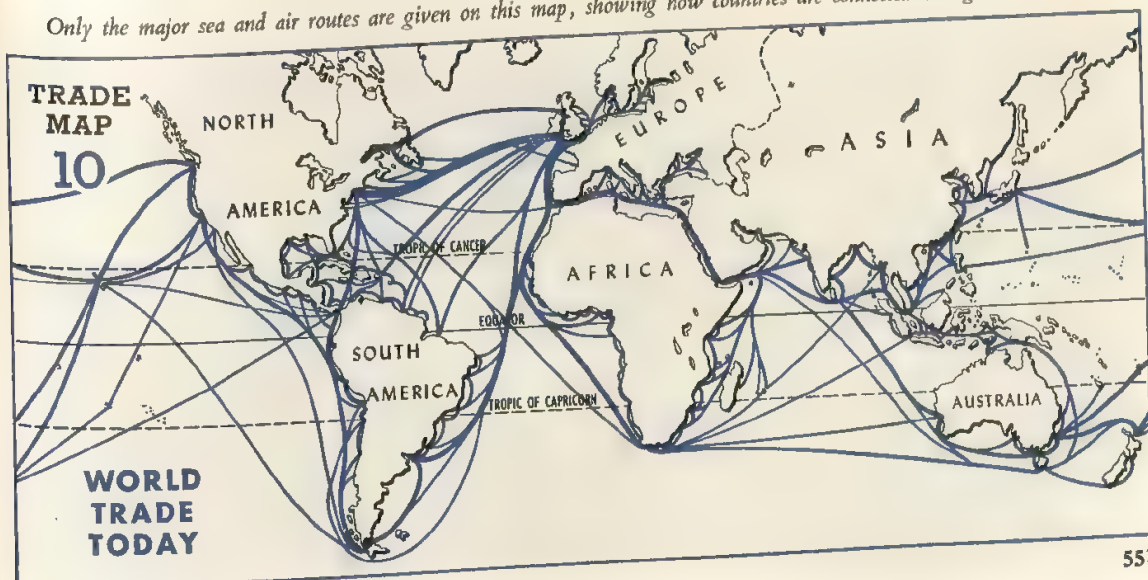
**The Secretariat** The UN has developed a civil service manned by persons from all over the world. This group, known as the Secretariat, performs a highly important service. The Secretary General, who heads the Secretariat, holds office for a five-year term. Trygve Lie (trig'vå lē) of Norway was the first Secretary General. He was succeeded in 1953 by Dag Hammarskjöld (däg häm'mär shöld) of Sweden. The duties of this office are many. Besides heading the Secretariat of more than five thousand workers, he watches the international scene and reports to the various organizations

1. What are the purposes of the UN?
2. Why is the General Assembly often spoken of as the "town meeting" of the world?
3. Who belongs to the General Assembly?
4. What is the voting procedure in the Security Council? Why has it not worked well?
5. What is the work of the Economic and Social Council?
6. Name some of the chief agencies under the Economic and Social Council.
7. Describe the organization and work of the International Court of Justice.
8. What are "trust territories"? What is the purpose of the Trusteeship system?

## THE UNITED NATIONS TACKLES POST-WAR PROBLEMS

**The UN at Work** The first meeting of the UN General Assembly, representing fifty-one nations, was held in London in January, 1946. One of the first

*Only the major sea and air routes are given on this map, showing how countries are connected through trade.*







United Nations

*At a health center in Ecuador, a nutritionist talks to a group of mothers about the choice and preparation of food for their families to insure proper diet. These programs are supported by the United Nations and the government of Ecuador.*

matters considered was permanent housing for the world organization. It was finally decided to build in New York City on land purchased with eight and a half million dollars donated by John D. Rockefeller, Jr. and a loan made by the United States government.

**Iranian Affair** The Security Council met for the first time in January, 1946, and immediately took up the important political problems that faced it. First, there was the Iranian affair. Iran accused Soviet Russia of interfering in the internal affairs of the country and asked for an investigation. During the Second World War, Great Britain, the United States, and Russia all had troops in Iran. At the close of the war the United States and Britain removed their troops according to agreement; but Russia kept hers in the northern province. Further, she refused Iranian troops the right to enter this province. The Security Council discussed the problem, and Soviet Russia, seeing that world opinion was against her, withdrew.

Again, in 1951, the UN was called upon to settle a dispute involving Iran and Great Britain. To understand this story we must go back into the history of Iran, or Persia, as it was called before 1937. For many years the British and Russians had vied with each other for control of Persia because of its important geographic position and its resources. At length they decided to divide the country into "spheres of influence," giving each a free hand to exploit the resources of the country in its sphere. This arrangement ended at the time of the Russian Revolution in 1917, when Russia withdrew from Persia.

During the early 1920's a military leader, Reza Kahn, established himself as monarch, or shah.

Reza Shah attempted to make reforms. A strong military force was set up and the finances of the country were reorganized. Roads and railroads were built. The government took over the British-dominated telegraph lines and the British and German airlines which had services in that country. Finally the government canceled the rights

that the Anglo-Persian Oil Company enjoyed. This company was owned largely by the British government. After long negotiations, the British agreed to a sixty-year lease by which Iran would receive more of the profits from the oil.

As the spirit of nationalism grew, the Iranians became more and more dissatisfied with this treaty. In 1951 Mohammed Mossadegh (mōh sāh dēk'), the prime minister, became practically a dictator of Iran. He nationalized the oil wells and the British were forced to withdraw. When the question was taken to the United Nations, Mossadegh could not be stirred from his stand. The Communists in the country, seeing in the situation a chance to embarrass the British, backed Mossadegh. The Iranians, however, did not know how to operate the oil wells. In the crisis that followed, Mossadegh attempted to overthrow the Shah, but failed. The new government began negotiations with the British.

**Indonesia** Another urgent problem was the demand of the Dutch East Indies for independence. Its rubber, tin,

quinine, and spices had long been a source of wealth to many Hollanders. With the rising tide of nationalism, the native people of the islands were demanding not only independence but the wealth from these resources. Two days after the Japanese surrendered in the Netherlands East Indies, Achmed Soekarno (sō kār'nō), who had long championed independence for his country, proclaimed the Republic of Indonesia. War broke out, first against the British forces that had landed to drive out the Japanese, and then against the Dutch. India and Australia separately brought the situation to the notice of the United Nations. The Netherlands claimed that it was a civil war and as such was not a matter for the UN to settle. England, France, and Belgium, fearing that UN action might set a precedent that could be used against their own empires at some future time, favored the Dutch viewpoint. The Netherlands was willing to concede the Indonesians domination status within the Dutch Empire; but the UN commission, of which Belgium, Australia, and the United States were members, recommended several steps leading to

*The red and white flag of the Indonesian Republic is raised for the first time as a member state of the United Nations.*

United Nations





the independence of Indonesia by the middle of 1950. The Dutch agreed to carry out the first steps but sought to evade granting complete independence. Nevertheless, the United States of Indonesia became a reality in January, 1950. Soon thereafter the new nation joined the UN.

**Palestine** One of the important questions to come before the UN concerned the destiny of Palestine, which had been given to Great Britain as a mandate following World War I.

During World War I, Lord Balfour, who was the Foreign Secretary at the time, had issued the Balfour Declaration. This stated that the British government would support "the establishment in Palestine of a national home for the Jewish people." There had been, even before World War I, a Zionist organization of Jews throughout the world whose purpose was to work for a national home for the Jews in Palestine. Now the Jews saw in the Balfour Declaration a promise of an answer to their desire for a state of their own.

The Jews, Arabs, and the British government did not interpret the declaration in the same way. The Jews understood it to mean that ancient Palestine would be given to them as a country of their own. The Arabs thought Lord Balfour had meant that Jews would be free to migrate to the Arab states there. The British government was not clear as to its meaning.

After World War I, Jewish refugees went to Palestine in ever-increasing numbers from Soviet Russia, Poland, and later from Hitler's Germany. By 1940 the number of Jews in Palestine had risen to 463,535. The Arabs looked upon this trend as a menace to their interests, while the Jews claimed it as proof of the need for a Jewish state.

Consequently, there were frequent armed clashes between the Jews and Arabs in Palestine.

After World War II the General Assembly of the UN recommended that Palestine be divided between the Arabs and the Jews. The city of Jerusalem would be internationalized and governed by the United Nations. The Arabs objected to the partition and declared war on the Jews. Neighboring Arab states, which had formed an Arab League to protect their interests, came to the support of their fellow Arabs in Palestine.

The British decided to give up their mandate and withdraw their troops. The Jews then proclaimed the establishment of the new nation, Israel, which the Arabs attacked with renewed fury because they, too, claimed a right to that territory. The UN Security Council ordered a truce and appointed Count Folke Bernadotte (bûr'nà dôt) of Sweden as mediator. His proposal was flatly rejected and fighting was resumed. Bernadotte was murdered in 1948 and Dr. Ralph Bunche of the UN negotiated an armistice. Intermittent warfare between Israel and Egypt continued until, in October, 1956, Israeli troops fought their way into Egyptian territory. In emergency session, the UN General Assembly called for an immediate cease-fire.

**Kashmir** After the death of Mohammed in 632, the Moslems spread their religion in India. As a result, the Moslem faith is strong in India, especially in the north. When the British agreed to a division of India into the states of India and Pakistan on a basis of religion, there were border disputes. This was one. Although Kaskmir was chiefly Moslem, the ruler, a Hindu, wanted it to become part of India.





United Nations

*Trouble between India and Kashmir drove thousands of refugees from their homes.*

War broke out, and the Security Council sent a commission to try to settle the matter. They succeeded in getting an order to cease fire and a promise that a plebiscite would be taken to decide to which state Kashmir should be ceded. Warfare ceased, but no way was found to carry out a plebiscite in a manner satisfactory to both Pakistan and India, although in 1954 Kashmir voted to become part of India.

**Atomic Energy** Within the UN itself problems developed. One difference between the Soviet Union and the Western Powers seemed crucial for the future of the world. The UN had set up an Atomic Energy Commission to study the control of atomic energy. Bernard Baruch (bār ōk'), the American member of the committee, proposed that all materials for atomic energy be placed under the control of the United Nations. When an inspection plan could be worked out and put into op-

eration, the United States would destroy its bombs and turn over its atomic secrets to the UN. The Western powers also held that the veto should not be used in any question regarding atomic control. Andrei Gromyko (grō mē'kō), of Russia, objected. He wanted to consider the question of inspection *after* the United States had destroyed its bombs. He also insisted that the veto should be used in questions regarding atomic energy. The threat of Russia's veto made it impossible for the UN Committee to carry through the American plan, which most of the UN members favored. In the meantime, both Russia and the United States went ahead with the construction of more atomic and hydrogen bombs. The knowledge that such power existed in the world might be a safeguard against war or lead directly to war.

**Korea** Korea was another area of friction and tension. When the Allied powers met at Moscow in December, 1945, they agreed to set up in Korea a native government under a four-power UN trusteeship. At that time Russian troops were occupying the northern half of Korea extending from the thirty-eighth parallel to the Manchurian and Siberian borders. The southern half of the country was occupied



by American soldiers. The United Nations took up the problem of Korean independence and tried to unify the country by conducting a national election. The Russians would not allow the UN commission to supervise an election north of the 38th parallel. The South Korean government of Syngman Rhee (sing'mǎn rē) was therefore recognized as the legitimate government.

Thus in 1948 Korea was divided into two political states: the Korean People's Republic, modeled after the Soviet pattern, was set up in the Russian zone; in the American zone the United Nations set up the Republic of Korea.

The United States withdrew its army of occupation but continued to give economic aid to the Koreans. In the spring of 1950 discontent with the Rhee administration resulted in internal disorder in the South Korean elections. The North Koreans, with encouragement from Russia, saw an opportunity to take advantage of unsettled conditions and in June invaded South Korea. The United States moved forces in from Japan to check the aggression. Then the United Nations Security Council officially authorized the Americans to act in stopping the war and called upon all members of the UN to furnish aid in repelling the attack. At that time the Russian representatives were boycotting the Security Council because it would not seat the Communist Chinese delegate instead of the Nationalist delegate. After less than four months of fighting, the aggressors were driven back homeward and the UN forces in a counter-attack passed beyond the 38th parallel. As they swept on toward the Yalu (yah lō) River, the boundary between North Korea and Manchuria, communist China suddenly sent troops against the UN forces and drove them back.

The Western nations were anxious not to let the war spread into a full-scale war involving China, and so General MacArthur was forbidden to bomb the bases of the Communist fliers in Manchuria. Because MacArthur did not agree that the war should be fought under such limitations, he was removed and General Matthew B. Ridgway took his place.

On June 23, 1951, a proposal from Russia suggested that there be an attempt to arrange a cease-fire in Korea. The UN took up the proposal and Communist General Nam Il with four of his officers sat down in Kaesong (kǎ'ī sōng') to discuss the matter with General Charles Turner Joy of the UN forces and four of his men. But it was not easy to reach an agreement with the Communists. After two years of negotiations, during which time the war continued, a truce was signed on July 26, 1953.

One bitter dispute between the UN and the Communists concerned the prisoners of war who did not wish to return home. Thousands of Communist prisoners did not want to return to China or North Korea. On the other hand, a few UN soldiers had been converted to communism in their prisoner-of-war camps and said that they wished to live in a Communist country. It was finally agreed to set up a commission of five neutral nations under the chairmanship of India to have charge of these men. Communists talked to their countrymen, but less than three percent went home.

- i. Be able to tell briefly the problem involved in each of the following cases:
  - Iran vs. Russia • Indonesia vs. the Netherlands • Arabs vs. the Jews in Palestine • India vs. Pakistan in Kashmir • The control of atomic energy • North Korea vs. South Korea.

## LATIN AMERICA MOVES SLOWLY

You will remember that Bolivar's dream of an independent, democratic United States of Latin America did not become a reality. Instead, twenty republics were established south of the Rio Grande River, and they were no more democratic than they were united. Early in the 1900's, many of the countries adopted constitutions that seemed democratic on paper. Most had universal suffrage. The president was to be elected by the people and an elected legislature was to make the laws. In performance, however, the governments varied widely. There was the truly democratic government of the smallest republic, Uruguay, and at the opposite extreme, military dictatorships like that of Juan Peron of Argentina.

The extreme poverty of the people aided the rivals in unseating the "strong men" in power by promising better times. This constant threat often caused those in power to enact socialistic measures. In Mexico, between 1915 and 1946, 65,000,000 acres of land were distributed among peasant families for lifetime use, but with title to the land belonging to the government. In many countries the means of transportation and much of the industry were nationalized. But socialization has not solved the problems of the poverty stricken peasants.

**Education** Despite the fact that the oldest universities in the Western Hemisphere are in Latin America, illiteracy has always been high. To combat this, most of the countries have set up free public schools; some have made school attendance compulsory for children over seven.

**"Good Neighbor" Policy** The early policies of the United States toward its

neighbors to the south caused resentment there. In the late 1920's, these began to change, and in 1933, President Roosevelt in his first inaugural address stated the "good neighbor" policy. United States Marines were withdrawn from the republics of the Caribbean Sea, where they had been stationed for years. When revolts occurred there, the United States did not interfere. We were dedicated to a new policy of non-interference with our neighbors.

### Organization of American States

The Pan-American conferences that had begun in 1889 were the result of an organization of twenty-one republics of the Western Hemisphere, called the Pan-American Union. In 1948 the Organization of American States was born. Its members pledged co-operation in trade and defense.

### Resources

Latin America is rich in natural resources. Venezuela is one of the chief producers of petroleum. Bolivia produces 15 per cent of the world's tin; Chile 95 per cent of its natural nitrates and is the world's second largest producer of copper. Most of the balsa wood used in aircraft comes from Ecuador. Mexico produces 31.5 per cent of the world's silver. Cuba is the largest source of sugar. Latin America also produces coffee, bananas, tobacco, wheat, sheep, beef, rubber, dye woods, cabinet woods, and cotton.

1. How did the poverty of the people aid the dictators?
2. Describe the "good neighbor" policy, Pan-American Union, Organization of American States.
3. What are the chief resources of Latin America? Products?



## THE FUTURE HOLDS A CHALLENGE

Man has made a long journey from the prehistoric Stone Age to the organization of the United Nations. It has not been a journey without failure. At times he would seem to trip and flounder in a whirlpool of ignorance, of selfishness, and of war. But mankind, working himself out of one eddy after another, continued on the journey.

On his way he harnessed the forces of nature that made life so hard for him; used science to conquer many diseases and to lengthen the life of the individual; through religion he learned, though he did not always practice it, that he should do unto others as he would like them to do unto him; he conquered space and discovered many secrets of the universe. The more he learned, the more he became aware of still

more problems that beckoned him on to further understanding. Opportunities for discovery are limitless for the inquiring mind and the world presents more challenges today than at any time in mankind's journey.

Few challenges promise greater rewards than the struggle to untangle the answer to permanent peace. If man is to continue his progress, he must bring an end to warfare. It is *ideas* that have counted in the world. Do not discredit them! Before every invention started, every discovery made, and every great structure erected, one or more people have thought out the *idea*. So it will be with peace. Very truly, wars begin in the minds of men. Great honor will come to those who can put *peace* into the minds of men. Then man will be free to expend all his talents on building a finer world.

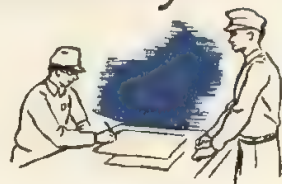
*An English poet wrote of one of the troubled periods of history, "Bliss was it in that dawn to be alive, But to be young was very heaven!" To be young today is to be challenged by the future of mankind. What shall it be?*

United Press



# I 2 · Milestones Toward Democracy

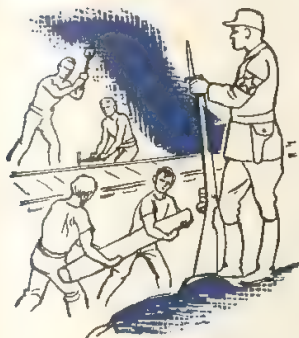
World War II brought the overthrow of the dictatorships in Germany and Italy and the end of military rule in Japan. The treaty with Japan set a new standard in benevolence toward a former enemy.



Socialism was rather widely adopted in England following the war. Many basic industries and the Bank of England came under government control.



Italy deposed her king and became a republic under a constitution. Germany was divided into zones, and a democratic German Federal Republic was set up in the western part of the country. Palestine and Indonesia became independent.



After World War II, communism threatened the free world. The Soviet Union, through propaganda, infiltration, and military support of satellite nations, sought world conquest. In Russian-controlled countries, liberty was wiped out.



The Four Freedoms as stated by President Roosevelt, the Marshall Plan, the Atlantic Charter, the Truman Doctrine, and finally, the United Nations Organization were the result of the good will and determination of free people to create world peace and establish human rights for all people.



## QUESTIONS FOR DISCUSSION

1. To what extent are the principles of the Atlantic Charter being used today?

2. If you were choosing the five permanent members of the UN Security Council today, would you select the same five as are members today? Give your reasons.

3. What justification is there for giving the veto power to the five permanent members?

4. Many small nations think that the "big five" have too much power. Would you agree?

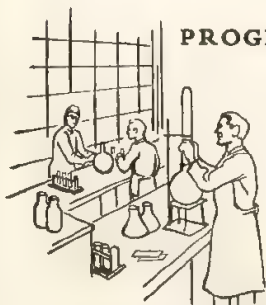
5. What advantages are there to the UN in having its permanent home in the United States? What advantages are there to the United States? Are there any disadvantages to the United States?

6. Two thirds of the world's population are farmers. Why, then, do so many people not have enough to eat?

# 12 • Milestones of Living

Man has progressed far during the thousands of centuries that he has been on the earth, and his climb to higher levels of culture continues in our own world.

## PROGRESS IN SCIENCE AND INVENTION



Many diseases were conquered by medical science. The "wonder" drugs and new medical techniques appeared. Television and Cinema-Scope added to man's educational entertainment. Plastics and other materials made our modern world increasingly interesting.



## PROGRESS IN EDUCATION

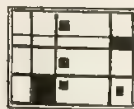
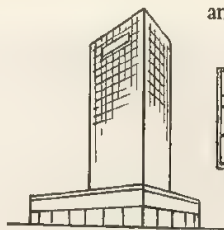
In America and many countries of Europe, adult education was widely extended. Business sought trained scientists and engineers to carry on their research and experimentation. The possibilities of atomic power for usefulness to mankind in many areas of living seemed limitless.



## PROGRESS IN THE ARTS

Architects, business, and governments in many countries became increasingly interested in better housing for more people and in commercial buildings designed for the greatest utility and comfort.

Interesting changes came in the drama and other forms of art.



7. In what sense is the work of agencies like UNESCO and the World Health Organization and FAO the most important work of the UN?

8. Why do people behind the "iron curtain" so often not know what goes on in the Security Council or the General Assembly?

9. Why not dismiss the Soviet Union from the General Assembly?

10. Centuries ago Aristotle said, "It is more difficult to organize peace than to win a war."

Do you agree with this statement? Why or why not?

11. Someone has said that the flow of history sometimes comes in a great flood, while at other times it moves along calmly. In which type of period are you living? Which type has the greater challenge for the individual?

12. Are the demands of the Four Freedoms for all people reasonable demands? Why do not all people have them?



## USING THE TOOLS OF HISTORY

### I. Names, Dates, and Places

#### 1. Can you explain these terms?

• Atlantic Charter • Declarations of the United Nations • "four freedoms" • "town meeting" of the world • trust territories • "waging the peace" • "good neighbor" policy •

#### 2. Do you know your dates?

• August 3-14, 1941 • January 1, 1942 • October 24, 1945 • June, 1950 •

#### 3. Places to locate on the map:

• Australia • Belgium • Finland • India • Indonesia • Iran • Israel • Kaesong • Kashmir • Korea • London • Manchuria • Maine • Moscow • New York City • New Zealand • Norway • Pakistan • Paris • Poland • San Francisco • Siam • Siberia • The Hague • Venezuela • Rio Grande River • Caribbean Sea • Mexico •

#### 4. Can you identify these persons?

• Bernard Baruch • Dag Hammarskjöld • Count Folke Bernadotte • Ralph Bunche • Winston Churchill • Andrei Gromyko • Charles Turner Joy • Trygve Lie • Douglas MacArthur • Nam Il • Syngman Rhee • Matthew B. Ridgway • Franklin D. Roosevelt • Achmed Soekarno • Josef Stalin • Reza Kahn •

### II. Can You Express Yourself Well?

1. If you live close enough to New York, plan to make a visit to the UN and observe the United Nations in operation.

2. On a map of the world show where one of the agencies of the UN has done social work. Different pupils may take various agencies and show them in different colors.

3. Find out what islands the United States administers as trust territories. Point them out to the class.

4. Let one pupil find out for the class who is the president of the Security Council for this month and from what country he comes.

5. One pupil can write to the UN to find out what kinds of work are done by employees there. Report to the class. If any one is interested in working for the UN, let him inquire further to find out what preparation is necessary for it. Read the letter to the class.

6. Follow in your daily paper and in some of the good current magazines the events of the world, especially those that deal with the relations between the United States and Soviet Russia. Give a two-minute report to the class each morning.

### III. Class Committee Work

One of the achievements of the UN is the framing of a Declaration of Human Rights. Let a committee read the Declaration to find out what liberties it mentions that the people of the United States enjoy. What proposals in the Declaration are not the rights of all American citizens? Report this to the class.

### IV. At the Blackboard

Woodrow Wilson once said that "we are participants, whether we would or not, in the life of the world. The interests of all nations are our own also. We are partners with the rest. What affects mankind is inevitably our affair as well as the affair of Europe and Asia." Make a list of all the activities any place in the world in which the United States is participating. No one of you could list them all, but a large number.

### V. An Assembly Program

Prepare a half-hour program to be beamed to some country of your choice behind the "iron curtain," by the Voice of America. Include music and brief talks on life in America; a program for Pan-American Day, April 14.

## GOOD READING

CRAIN, MAURICE, *Rulers of the World*, Thomas Y. Crowell, 1942

*Brief biographies of the men responsible for the governments and conduct of the war in their respective countries: Roosevelt, Churchill, Chiang Kai-shek, and others.*

DAVIS, KENNETH SYDNEY, *Soldier of Democracy*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1945

*An interesting biography of Eisenhower.*

DAVIS, ROBERT, *That Girl of Pierre's*, Holiday House, 1948

*The story of a French girl who returned to her village after the war.*

EATON, JEANETTE, *Gandhi: Fighter without a Sword*, William Morrow & Co., 1950

FENTON, EDWARD, *Aleko's Island*, Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1948

*A Greek boy who lives with his unhappy and bitter grandmother after his parents were killed in the war in the end discovers the real meaning of freedom.*

GALT, THOMAS FRANKLIN, *Story of Peace and War*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., 1952

*A lively study of war from earliest times and the efforts men have made to keep peace.*

HEIDE, DIRK VAN DER, *My Sister and I*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1941

*Part of the diary kept by a twelve-year old Dutch boy during the horrors of the war against Holland.*

HERSEY, JOHN RICHARD, *Hiroshima*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., 1946

*Tells in a graphic way of the destruction of the city by the atomic bomb.*

*Koreans who have lost their homes and families look gravely at the United Nations posters on the walls of the ruins of Seoul, their capital city. These were displayed on United Nations Day.*

HIGGINS, MARGUERITE, *War in Korea, Woman's Home Companion* (April, 1951), pp. 44-6

*The story of the Korean War told by an expert woman reporter who lived and reported from the front lines.*

LIE, TRYGVE & OTHERS, *Peace on Earth*, Hermitage House, Inc., 1949

*Experts on different aspects of the UN and its agencies write short accounts of those agencies.*

NORTON, ALICE MARY, *Sword is Drawn*, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1944

*A book of fiction telling the "story of a Dutch boy's escape from the Netherlands as the Nazis invade; of his adventures when he joins his cousin in Java; of the coming of the Japanese; of his arrival in the United States and of his joining the . . . Dutch movement."*

PYLE, ERNEST TAYLOR, *Here is Your War*, Henry Holt & Co., 1943

*A first-hand account of World War II by the most popular war correspondent.*

SEGER, ELIZABETH, *Pageant of Russian History*, Longmans, Green & Co., Inc., 1950

*A good history of Russia, including recent times.*

WHITE, WILLIAM LINDSAY, *Journey for Margaret*, Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1941

*A reporter in England tells of the bombing of London and of the orphan of three and a half whom he adopted.*

UNATIONS



## *Appendix*



# Dates and Names for Reference

**Note:** *c* before a date means that the definite date is not known. The one given is an approximate year or period.

B.C.		
<i>c</i> 4300	First use of metals	509-49
<i>c</i> 4200	Egyptian calendar	490
<i>c</i> 3000	Union of Upper and Lower Egypt	461-429
3000-2500	The Great Pyramids	<i>c</i> 450
<i>c</i> 3000	Beginning of civilization in Valley of Two Rivers	337-323
		<i>c</i> 323-44
		<i>c</i> 273-236
<i>c</i> 2000	Beginning of migration of Greeks into Greece	264-30
<i>c</i> 1800	Hammurabi's Code of Laws	100-44
<i>c</i> 1800-1600	Hyksos invade Egypt	27 B.C.-14 A.D.
<i>c</i> 1800-1000	Migration of Italic tribes into Italy	27 B.C.-180 A.D.
1580-1090	Egyptian Empire at its height	4
<i>c</i> 1400	Use of iron by Hittites	A.D.
<i>c</i> 1225	Ten Commandments of Moses	54-68
1150-249	Chou Dynasty in China	284-305
<i>c</i> 1000	Hebrew Kingdom in Palestine	330
<i>c</i> 1000	Height of Mayan civilization	395
<i>c</i> 800	Homer's <i>Iliad</i> and <i>Odyssey</i>	410
776	First recorded Olympic games	476
551-479	Confucius	529
<i>c</i> 500	Buddha	622
521-485	Darius I	732
		800
		Roman Republic
		Battle of Marathon
		Age of Pericles
		Twelve Tables of Roman Law
		Alexander the Great
		Hellenistic Age
		Asoka's Empire in India
		Building of Roman Empire
		Julius Caesar
		Age of Augustus
		Roman Empire at its height
		Birth of Christ
		Persecution of Christians by Nero
		Diocletian reorganizes the Empire
		Constantinople, new Roman capital
		Final division of Roman Empire
		Alaric sacks Rome
		Fall of Western Roman Empire
		Justinian's Code of Roman law
		Hejira
		Battle of Tours
		Coronation of Charlemagne

871-899	Alfred the Great	18th century	Industrial Revolution
c 900-1250	Feudalism at its height in Europe	1763	Treaty of Paris
962	Otto the Great, first Holy Roman Emperor	1772, 1793, 1795	Partition of Poland by Russia, Prussia, and Austria
1066	Norman conquest of England	1776	Declaration of Independence
c 1095-1300	The Crusades	1788	United States Constitution
1215	Magna Carta	1789	French Revolution
1265	De Montfort's Parliament	1804-1814	Napoleon I in France
1295	Model Parliament	1814-1815	Congress of Vienna
13th century	Founding of Franciscan and Dominican Orders	19th century	Growth of European empires
	Marco Polo's journey to China	1854	Japan opened to Western influence
1364-1453	Hundred Years' War	1867	Formation of Austro-Hungarian Empire
14th and 15th centuries	Renaissance in Italy	1867	Dominion of Canada formed
c 1450	Gutenberg's printing press	1870	Unification of Italy
1453	Fall of Constantinople	1871	German Empire proclaimed
1485-1603	Tudor Dynasty in England	1898	Spanish-American War
1492	Discovery of America	1899	Hague Peace Conference, International Court of Arbitration
1517	Luther's Ninety-five Theses		Open-door policy in China
1519-1522	Magellan's circumnavigation of the globe	1900	Boxer Rebellion
1588	Defeat of Spanish Armada	1903	First airplane flight
1598	Edict of Nantes	1904-1905	Russo-Japanese War
1628	Petition of Right in England	1910	Union of South Africa
1643-1715	Age of Louis XIV	1911	Chinese Revolution; republic established
1648	Treaty of Westphalia	1914-1918	World War I
1688	Glorious Revolution in England	1917	Russian Revolution
1689	English Bill of Rights	1920	League of Nations meets
1689-1725	Peter the Great		

1922	Fascist control in Italy	1945	United Nations founded
	World Court established		First use of atomic bomb
1931	Statute of Westminster	1947	India and Pakistan, independent nations
1933	Hitler becomes dictator of Germany	1949	Republic of Israel established
1937	Japan's attack on China proper	1950	United States of Indonesia established
1939-1945	World War II	1950-1953	War in Korea
1941	Japan's attack on Pearl Harbor	1954	Truce in Indo-China

## Artists

<b>Bellows, George</b>	1882-1925	<b>Goya, Francisco</b>	1746-1828
United States	Portrait painter	Spain	Portrait painter and etcher
<b>Benton, Thomas</b>	1889—	<b>Hals, Frans</b>	c 1580-1666
United States	Landscape and mural painter	Netherlands	Portrait painter
<b>Cezanne, Paul</b>	1839-1906	<b>Holbein, Hans</b>	1497-1543
France	Landscape and portrait painter	Germany	Portrait and religious painter
<b>Corot, Jean-Baptiste</b>	1796-1875	<b>Innes, George</b>	1825-1894
France	Landscape painter	United States	Landscape painter
<b>Degas, Hilaire Germain</b>	1834-1917	<b>Kent, Rockwell</b>	1882—
France	Portrait painter	United States	Landscape and mural painter, illustrator
<b>Dürer, Albrecht</b>	1471-1528	<b>La Farge, John</b>	1835-1910
Germany	Portrait painter and engraver	United States	Mural painter and worker in stained glass
<b>El Greco</b>	c 1542-1614	<b>Leonardo da Vinci</b>	1452-1519
Spain	Portrait and religious painter	Italy	Portrait painter, sculptor, architect
<b>Epstein, Jacob</b>	1880—	<b>Manet, Edouard</b>	1832-1883
United States	Sculptor	France	Landscape and portrait painter
<b>Eyck, Hubert van</b>	c 1366-1426	<b>Manship, Paul</b>	1885—
Flanders	Portrait painter	United States	Sculptor
<b>Eyck, Jan van</b>	c 1385-1440	<b>Michelangelo Buonarroti</b>	1475-1564
Flanders	Portrait painter	Italy	Painter, sculptor, architect
<b>Gainsborough, Thomas</b>	1727-1788	<b>Millet, Jean Francois</b>	1814-1875
England	Portrait and landscape painter	France	Landscape painter
<b>Giotto</b>	c 1267-1337	<b>Monet, Claude</b>	1840-1926
Italy	Painter of religious pictures	France	Landscape painter
<b>Gogh, Vincent van</b>	1853-1890	<b>Murillo, Bartolomé</b>	c 1617-1682
Netherlands	Native landscape and portrait painter	Spain	Portrait painter



- Myron** *c* 450 B.C.  
Greece Sculptor
- Phidias** *c* 500–*c* 432 B.C.  
Greece Sculptor
- Picasso, Pablo** 1881—  
Spain Painter of still life and landscape
- Praxiteles** 4th Century B.C.  
Greece Sculptor
- Raphael Sanzio** 1483–1520  
Italy Portrait painter, architect
- Rembrandt van Rijn** 1606–1669  
Netherlands Portrait painter
- Renoir, Pierre Auguste** 1841–1919  
France Landscape and portrait painter
- Reynolds, Sir Joshua** 1723–1792  
England Portrait painter
- Rivera, Diego** 1886—  
Mexico Painter of murals
- Rodin, Auguste** 1840–1917  
France Sculptor
- Rubens, Peter Paul** 1577–1640  
Flanders Portrait and mural painter
- Saint-Gaudens, Augustus** 1848–1907  
United States Sculptor
- Sargent, John Singer** 1856–1925  
United States Portrait painter
- Thorwaldsen, Bertel** 1770–1844  
Denmark Sculptor
- Titian** *c* 1477–1576  
Italy Portrait and fresco painter
- Turner, Joseph M. W.** 1775–1851  
England Landscape painter
- Van Dyck, Sir Anthony** 1599–1641  
Flanders Portrait and religious painter
- Velazquez, Diego** 1599–1660  
Spain Portrait painter
- Watteau, Antoine** 1684–1721  
France Landscape painter
- Whistler, James Abbott** 1834–1903  
United States Portrait and landscape painter, etcher

## *Scientists and Inventors*

- Andrews, Roy Chapman** 1884—  
United States Naturalist Explorations in Gobi Desert
- Archimedes** *c* 287–212 B.C.  
Sicily Mathematician Screw, levers, etc.
- Arkwright, Sir Richard** 1732–1792  
England Inventor Spinning frame
- Audubon, John James** 1785–1851  
United States Naturalist Study of birds
- Bacon, Roger** *c* 1214–1294  
England Scientist Encouraged scientific experiment
- Bell, Alexander Graham** 1847–1922  
United States Inventor Telephone
- Bessemer, Sir Henry** 1813–1898  
England Inventor Process of making steel
- Burbank, Luther** 1849–1926  
United States Botanist
- Cartwright, Edmund** 1743–1823  
England Inventor Power loom
- Copernicus, Nicolaus** 1473–1543  
Poland Astronomer Theory of solar system
- Curie, Marie** 1867–1934  
Poland Physicist Radium
- Curie, Pierre** 1859–1906  
France Physicist Radium
- Curtiss, Glenn** 1878–1930  
United States Inventor Scaplane
- Darwin, Charles** 1809–1882  
England Naturalist Theory of evolution
- Descartes, René** 1596–1650  
France Mathematician and Philosopher Encouraged scientific study
- Diesel, Rudolf** 1858–1913  
Germany Inventor Diesel engine

- Edison, Thomas Alva** 1847-1931  
United States Inventor Incandescent light, phonograph, etc.
- Einstein, Albert** 1879—  
United States Physicist and Mathematician Theory of relativity
- Eratosthenes** c 276-194 B.C.  
Greece Astronomer and Geographer Maps of then-known world
- Ericsson, John** 1803-1889  
United States Inventor Screw propeller
- Euclid** About 300 B.C.  
Alexandria Mathematician Geometry
- Faraday, Michael** 1791-1867  
England Physicist Dynamo, electroplating
- Field, Cyrus** 1819-1892  
United States Inventor Atlantic cable
- Franklin, Benjamin** 1706-1790  
United States Philosopher and Scientist Electricity
- Fulton, Robert** 1765-1815  
United States Inventor Steamboat
- Galilei, Galileo** 1564-1642  
Italy Astronomer Improved telescope
- Gutenberg, Johann** c 1406-1468  
Germany Inventor Movable type
- Hargreaves, James** ?-1778  
England Inventor Spinning jenny
- Harvey, William** 1578-1657  
England Physician Circulation of the blood
- Hippocrates** c 460-377 B.C.  
Greece Physician "Father of medicine"
- Howe, Elias** 1819-1867  
United States Inventor Sewing machine
- Jenner, Edward** 1749-1823  
England Physician Vaccination for smallpox
- Kepler, Johannes** 1571-1630  
Germany Astronomer Revolution of the planets
- Koch, Robert** 1843-1910  
Germany Bacteriologist Inoculation
- Leeuwenhoek, Anton von** 1632-1723  
Holland Naturalist Microscope
- Lister, Sir Joseph** 1827-1912  
England Physician Antiseptics
- Marconi, Guglielmo** 1874-1937  
Italy Inventor Wireless telegraph
- McCormick, Cyrus** 1809-1884  
United States Inventor Reaper
- Mendel, Gregor Johann** 1822-1884  
Austria Botanist Theory of heredity
- Morse, Samuel F. B.** 1791-1872  
United States Inventor Telegraph
- Morton, William Thomas** 1819-1868  
United States Dentist Ether
- Newton, Sir Isaac** 1642-1727  
England Mathematician
- Pasteur, Louis** 1822-1895  
France Chemist "Pasteurization"
- Reed, Walter** 1851-1902  
United States Physician Control of typhoid fever
- Roentgen, Wilhelm Konrad** 1845-1923  
Germany Physicist X-ray
- Schliemann, Heinrich** 1822-1890  
Germany Archeologist Ancient Greek excavations
- Steinmetz, Charles** 1865-1923  
Germany; United States Physicist Inventions in electricity
- Stephenson, George** 1781-1848  
England Inventor Locomotive
- Watt, James** 1736-1819  
Scotland Inventor Steam engine
- Westinghouse, George** 1846-1914  
United States Inventor Air brakes
- Whitney, Eli** 1765-1825  
United States Inventor Cotton gin; interchangeable parts
- Wright, Orville and Wilbur** 1871-1948, 1867-1913  
United States Inventors Airplane

## Religious Leaders

- Augustine, Saint** 354-430  
Italy Bishop of Hippo, *Confessions*
- Augustine, Saint** ?-604  
Italy First Archbishop of Canterbury
- Becket, Thomas à** c 1118-1170  
England Archbishop of Canterbury
- Benedict, St.** 480-543  
Italy Author of Benedictine rule for monks
- Boniface, St.** c 680-755  
England Apostle to the Germans
- Buddha (Gautama)** about 500 B.C.  
India Founder of Buddhist religion
- Calvin, John** 1509-1564  
France Religious reformer in Switzerland; founder of Calvinism
- Dominic, St.** 1170-1221  
Spain Founder of Dominican Order of monks
- Francis, St. of Assisi** 1182-1226  
Italy Founder of Franciscan Order of monks
- Gregory I** c 540-604  
Italy Established power of papacy
- Jerome, St.** c 340-420  
Italy Translation of Bible into Latin
- Jesus Christ** 4 B.C.-29 A.D.  
Palestine Founder of Christian religion
- Knox, John** 1505-1572  
Scotland Founder of Presbyterian Church
- Laud, William** 1573-1645  
England Leader of High Church Party
- Leo I** c 390-461  
Italy Pope who turned back barbarians from Rome
- Loyola, Ignatius** 1491-1556  
Spain Founder of Jesuit Order
- Luther, Martin** 1483-1546  
Germany Leader of Reformation
- Mohammed** c 570-632  
Arabia Founder of Mohammedan religion
- Moses** 13th century B.C.  
Palestine Hebrew leader
- Patrick, St.** c 389-461  
Britain "Apostle of Ireland"
- Paul, St.** First century  
Palestine First Christian missionary
- Urban II** c 1042-1099  
Italy Issued call for First Crusade
- Wesley, John** 1703-1791  
England Founder of Methodist movement
- Wycliffe, John** c 1320-1384  
England Reform movement in Medieval Church
- Xavier, Francis** 1506-1552  
Spain Missionary to India and Japan
- Zoroaster** c 600 B.C.  
Persia Founder of Zoroastrianism
- Zwingli, Ulrich** 1484-1531  
Switzerland Protestant leader in Switzerland



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